Conceptualisation, Measurement, and Validation of Consumer-Brand Identification: A Social Identity Theory Perspective

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ABSTRACT

Of particular importance to academics and practitioners in the marketing discipline is the ability to identify means of building deep, committed and enduring relationships with customers. Consumer-brand identification has been proposed as a useful construct in understanding the underlining mechanisms that explain relationships between consumers and brands. Despite the surge in interest in examining identification in the organisational settings, little attention has been paid to the investigation of the notion of identification in the branding context. Following a systematic review of relevant peer-reviewed articles in six major electronic databases, published between 1989 and 2013, three limitations were apparent (a) the lack of clear unequivocal definition of consumer identification, (b) doubts over discriminant validity between consumer identification and similar marketing constructs, and (c) limited evidence of reliability or validity for most available measures. Informed by these issues, a theoretically grounded conceptualisation and measurement of consumer-brand identification construct were developed. Specifically, three comprehensive phases were conducted to develop a reliable, valid and parsimonious consumer-brand identification scale. Following item generation from literature review and two expert surveys, these items in conjunction with related constructs and existing measures of identification were administered to two independent samples. Numerous exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were employed to purify the scale, determine the dimensionality of the construct, assess the internal consistency of the scale, and support its convergent, discriminant and predictive validity. These analyses found support for a second-order consumer-brand identification construct comprising of five first-order factors: cognitive identification, affective identification, public evaluation, private

evaluation, and emotional responses. Using a third new sample, the newly developed scale was then incorporated into a full structural model to assess its nomological validity.

This thesis contributes to the identification theory and practice by, first, offering a theoretically grounded conceptualisation of consumer-brand identification and delineating the construct of interest from similarly related constructs. Second, by developing a valid, reliable and parsimonious scale that reflects the multidimensional conceptualisation of the construct. Third, by utilising the new measure to study underexplored antecedents and consequences to the newly conceptualised consumer-brand identification construct. Finally, the findings would help researchers and managers gain a better understanding of the phenomenon of identification and factors under which identification is likely to occur that can derive advocacy or championing behaviour. In addition, consumer-brand identification scale might facilitate the measurement of identification in future empirical studies and could be a useful tool for managers to determine the level of identification of both current and potential consumers.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my only brother, Abdulrahman Elbedweihy (Bido), who passed away in 2013. Bido's death was sudden, and has left a hole in the hearts of all who loved him. He was kind-hearted, warm and children loved being around him. Bido was very caring towards his friends and family, and most would describe him as intelligent, funny, a person who would always be there to help and support others. He used to work hard to reach his goals and was very determined and ambitious to succeed in almost everything he did. Bido was an honest man who lived for peace, morals, and genuinely felt the need to do what was right in his heart. Bido, I will miss being with you, growing old, sharing memories, sharing the joys and sorrows of life. I had no chance to say goodbye or tell you how much I love you. You had and will always have a special place in my heart. I will never forget you Bido. I Love you!

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work and frustrations. I know that my lovely son, Ammar, has suffered a lot during this long journey, my absence for long hours and most of the holidays studying and working. However, just remembering your lovely smile and feeling your hug makes me forget everything. Thank you so much for loving me and being extremely patient with me throughout the PhD journey.

PUBLICATIONS

Journal Publications

Elbedweihy, A. M. & Jayawardhena, C. (2014) Consumer-brand identification: A social identity based review and research directions. *The Marketing Review*, 14(2), 205-228.

Elbedweihy, A.M., Jayawardhena, C., Elsharnouby, M. & El Sharnouby, T. The missing link between self-verification needs and consumer behaviours: The role of consumer-brand identification (Invited to revise and resubmit in *Journal of Business Research*).

Conference Proceedings

Elbedweihy, A.M., Jayawardhena, C., El Sharnouby, T. & Elsharnouby, M. (2014) Customer relationship building through identification: Mediating effect of perceived quality and moderating effect of brand engagement. *American Marketing Association (AMA) Summer Educator's Proceedings.* San Francisco, 1-3 August 2014, C15-C16.

Elbedweihy, A.M., Jayawardhena, C., Elsharnouby, M. & El Sharnouby, T. (2014) Self-continuity and consumer in-role and extra-role behaviour: The role of consumer-brand identification. *American Marketing Association (AMA) Winter Educator's Proceedings*. Orlando, 21-23 February 2014, A26-A27.

Elbedweihy, A.M., Jayawardhena, C. & Elsharnouby, M. (2013) The missing link between self-definitional principles and resilience to negative information: The role of consumer brand identification. *European Marketing Academy (EMAC) Conference*. Istanbul, 4-7 June 2013.

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CHAPTER ONE
SETTING THE STAGE

The objective of this chapter is to lay the foundations and provide the context for subsequent chapters. It provides an overview of the research background, leading to the formulation of the research questions and objectives that underpin this research. Next, a brief overview of the research methodology, findings and contributions is presented. The structure of the thesis is then outlined which provides a brief overview of each of the following chapters. Figure 1.1 shows the structure of the chapter.

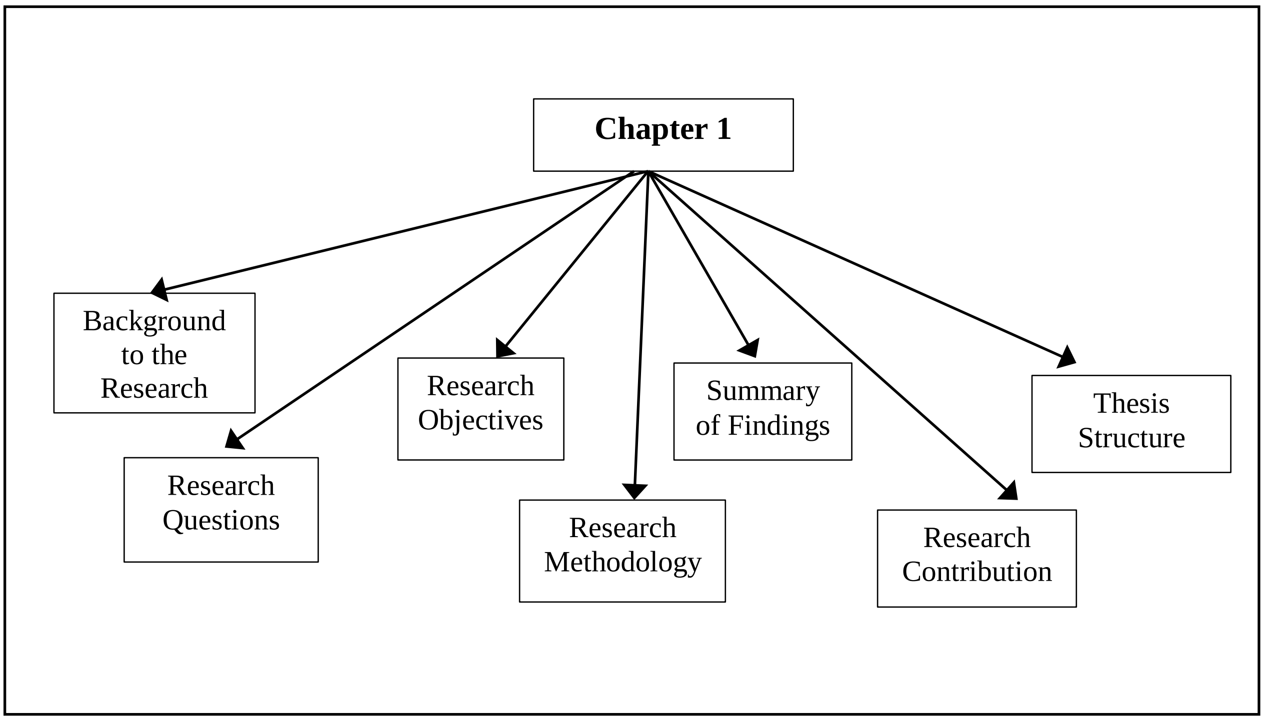


Figure 1.1 Structure of Chapter One

1.1 Background to the Research

Multifaceted relationships between consumers and brands have received significant interest by academic researchers and practitioners for decades (Fournier, 1998; Lam et al., 2010; Levy, 1959). Brand loyalty has been a common framework for conceptualising long-term relationships with brands, however, it does not offer explanations of how and why brands are consumed by loyal consumers (Fournier, 1998). Although the essential role of customer satisfaction as an instrumental driver for consumer-brand relationships remains undisputed (Homburg et al., 2009), companies continue to explore means of building deep and enduring relationships with customers (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Malär et al., 2011), motivated by the positive outcomes that can emerge from such relationship-building efforts (Park et al., 2010). In this sense, developing a strong bond with a brand requires a more comprehensive approach than a simple focus on customer satisfaction. It is argued that such positive outcomes can be brought about by fostering strong consumer-brand relationships by focusing on the psychological belongingness or oneness with a brand (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Homburg et al., 2009). This approach is underpinned by the social identity theory and organisational identification frameworks, which seek to explain the process of identification as a useful means of building deep and enduring relationships with consumers (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005; Homburg et al., 2009).

Consumer identification is considered "an active, selective and volitional act motivated by the satisfaction of one or more self-definitional (i.e. Who I am?) needs" (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003: 77). Initial findings of this psychological state propose that individuals who identify with a particular target entity (e.g. brand, company) are likely to perform favourable behaviours directed toward the benefit of the target entity (Ahearne et al., 2005). Despite the importance of the identification construct, it has received limited attention in the marketing literature compared to other constructs (e.g. satisfaction, perceived quality) (Homburg et al., 2009; Tildesley & Coote, 2009). Thus, the body of knowledge of consumer identification is still in its infancy stage (Tildesley & Coote, 2009).

Although the last decade has witnessed the beginning of interest in consumer identification construct (Ahearne et al., 2005), there is a lack of a clear unequivocal conceptualisation of consumer identification and its underlying dimensions. Specifically, a clear consensus as to what consumer identification means is still lacking (Lam et al., 2010). With a few exceptions (e.g. Lam, 2012; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012), most research has been devoted to the empirical testing of the drivers and consequences of consumer identification. This situation has been further compounded by a lack of clarity around consumer identification and related similar constructs. The lack of clear understanding of the identification construct can create contradictions with regard to defining the exact domain of consumer identification construct (Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000). Most importantly, the danger is that in not identifying the differences between consumer identification and conceptually similar constructs there is possibility that any of these concepts may have the same meaning but have been given different labels by different researchers resulting in a conceptual confusion and/or redundancy (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Therefore, developing a clear theoretically grounded conceptualisation of consumer-brand identification may resolve the inconsistencies in the existing literature and help academics and practitioners understand the phenomenon of identification. Moreover, developing a conceptual definition represents the first critical step in the scale development process that is often neglected or dealt with in a superficial manner by researchers (MacKenzie et al., 2011).

To the author's best knowledge, there have been a few attempts to demarcate how consumer-brand identification construct can be measured empirically (e.g. Einwiller et al., 2006; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). To date, efforts to measure consumer identification include the addition and deletion of items from Mael and Ashforth's (1992) six-item organisational identification measure (e.g. Homburg et al., 2009; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010) and/or the adaptation of Bergami and Bagozzi's (2000) cognitive organisational identification scale by changing the word "organisation" to "brand" (e.g. Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006; Stokburger-Sauer, 2010). Additionally, the majority of the previous studies followed Mael and Ashforth (1992) and Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) by specifying consumer identification as strictly cognitive and employing a unidimensional approach. By operationalising consumer identification as a unidimensional construct, these studies ignore the conceptual richness of the construct (Lam et al., 2010). Unexplored dimensions may open new avenues for improving the explanatory power of the said construct to better understand and predict consumer behaviour. The lack of an appropriate measurement scale of consumer–brand identification construct grounded in theory is a substantial gap in the literature. Addressing this significant gap by developing a rigorous measurement scale will clear the path for future theory testing and meaningful empirical research.

Although previous research has noted the positive benefits of consumer-brand identification (e.g. Homburg et al., 2009; Lam et al., 2013), little is known about the motivations that engender identification (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). Specifically, how variables associated with the company's employees and/or the relationship marketing tactics employed by the company influence consumer-brand identification has received far less attention. Moreover, whilst several scholars have highlighted the influence consumer identification has on word of mouth as a form of customer-citizenship behaviour (e.g. Hildebrand et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2001; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008) little attention has been given to others forms of customer citizenship behaviours.

1.2 Research Questions

The lack of clear unequivocal conceptualisation and an appropriate measure of consumer-brand identification has prevented both the marketing scholars and practitioners from developing a clear understanding of brand identification and its dimensionality. Reconceptualising and measuring identification within the consumer context grounded on a theoretically solid and rigorous foundation is important since it would provide better understanding of the identification construct, open new avenues for understanding the predictors of brand identification, and improve the explanatory power of identification to better understand and predict consumer behaviour. Therefore, the research question investigated in this thesis is:

"How can consumer-brand identification be conceptualised and measured?"

1.3 Research Objectives

To facilitate the investigation of the research question, a number of research objectives have been developed.

1. To critically assess whether existing conceptualisations of consumer identification adequately capture the underlying theoretical foundation of the construct.

2. To critically evaluate whether available measurement scales of consumer identification reflect the domain of the construct and exhibit sufficient evidence of reliability and validity.

3. *To develop a theoretically grounded definition and understanding of the underlying dimensions of consumer-brand identification construct.*

4. *To conceptually and empirically differentiate consumer-band identification construct and similar constructs in the marketing literature.*

5. *To develop a reliable, valid, and parsimonious measurement scale of consumer-brand identification.*

6. To utilise the new measurement scale to investigate antecedents and consequences (i.e. nomological net) of consumer-brand identification in the service branding context.

1.4 Research Methodology

To fulfil the research objectives, a two-stage research design was employed. The first stage of the research involved employing an exploratory research design to develop a theoretical understanding of the consumer-brand identification construct and its dimensions, including the generation of an item pool that sampled the domain of the construct. The second stage of the research involved using multiple cross-sectional research design to examine the dimensionality, reliability and validity of the scale through quantitative techniques. Following the scale development guidelines proposed in the extant literature (Churchill, 1979; Devellis, 2003, Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Hinkin, 1998; Netemeyer et al. 2003), consumer-brand identification was developed and validated in three phases including two stages of expert panel judging and three independent samples. Phase one involved an initial item pool generation and content validity assessment. Phase two included two independent studies. In the first study, using a web-based self-administered survey, 316 completed responses were collected and analysed using both exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was utilised to purify the scale from poorly performing items and determine the initial dimensionality of the construct. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to verify the exploratory factor structure, compare alternative measurement models fit, and assess the construct's reliability, convergent and discriminant validity. In the second study, using a new sample of respondents (n= 696) and product brands, the scale items were subject to further refinement based on their psychometric properties. The dimensionality and stability of the consumer-brand identification scale was assessed. The scale's convergent validity was examined by comparing the newly developed measure of consumer-brand identification to established scales measuring identification in the marketing literature. Moreover, the scale's discriminant validity from similarly related constructs was assessed.

In the third phase, which included the third study, the measurement properties of the consumer-brand identification scale were further validated using a new sample of respondents (n= 333) and service brands. Consumer-brand identification was reconceptualised as a second-order construct with five first-order dimensions and estimated as part of the full structural model to assess the construct's relationships with potential antecedents and consequences using covariance-based structural equation modelling. In the three studies, to rule out the potential influence of common method bias, a comprehensive confirmatory factor analysis marker variable technique was applied (Williams et al., 2010). Moreover, to confirm the scale's robustness and its invariance across product and service categories, multi-group confirmatory factor analysis was employed in the second and third studies.

1.5 Summary of Findings

The research question investigated is concerned with conceptualising and measuring consumer-brand identification construct. By integrating the research findings based on a series of quantitative analyses, the preliminary theoretically based definition was enhanced and consumer-brand identification is defined as:

"A *psychological state of perceiving a self-defining cognitive association with a brand together with the value and affective significance deriving from that association".*

The dimensions of consumer-brand identification that emerged from the data were cognitive identification, affective identification, public evaluation, private evaluation, and emotional responses. Across the three studies and a range of product and service brands, a reliable, valid and parsimonious 11-item scale was developed, demonstrating psychometrically sound properties.

1.6 Research Contributions

This thesis makes four main contributions to the fields of marketing and consumer behaviour. First, it builds on and challenges the extant prevailing definitions of identification by developing a theoretically grounded definition of consumer-brand identification and identifying the construct's dimensionality, thus providing incremental insights (Corley & Gioia, 2011) to the brand identification literature. Second, this research offers original revelatory insights that has scientific and practical utility (Corley

& Gioia, 2011) by developing a parsimonious, reliable and valid measure of consumer-brand identification, an important construct that has significant influence on consumers' attitudes and behaviours. The newly developed scale provides practitioners with a useful diagnostic tool to assess the identification level of current and potential customers and the effectiveness of the company's strategies in enhancing the level of consumers' identification. Third, this research is among the first to highlight the importance of employees' behaviour and relationship marketing tactics in influencing the extent to which consumers' identify with a service brand. Finally, this research supports the notion that consumer-brand identification plays a dominant role in influencing various forms of customer citizenship behaviours. Beyond their theoretical significance, the findings are significant for managers by highlighting the importance of consumer-brand identification as a predictor of consumer voluntary behaviour. Beyond these contributions, other theoretical, methodological and managerial contributions have been outlined and detailed in the conclusion chapter.

1.7 Thesis Structure

This thesis includes ten chapters (see Figure 1.2) and is structured as follows. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter Two provides a review of the social identity approach which is the theoretical foundation of the identification construct. The review then focuses upon identity and presents a brief overview of organisational identity, corporate identity and brand identity. The chapter then discusses identification with organisations, companies and brands rather than just brands per se, as identification is most prevalent in organisational studies.

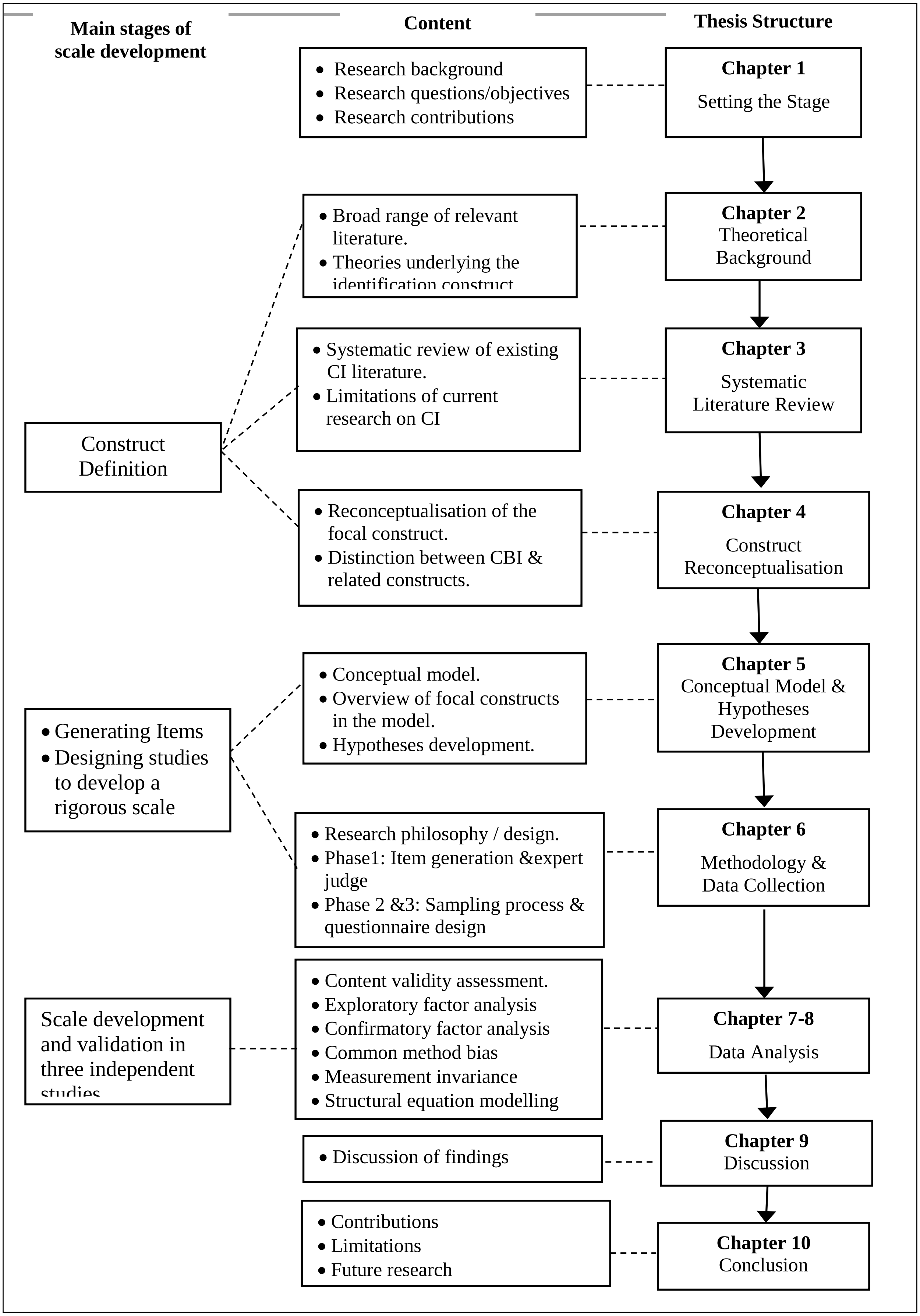


Figure 1.2 Structure of the Thesis

Chapter Three undertakes a systematic review of consumer identification literature. This review includes peer-reviewed articles published between 1989 and 2013, using six major electronic databases, and applies a rigorous and transparent search strategy and review process. The results of this review are then detailed, in particular the diverse ways of defining consumer identification and the psychometric properties of existing instruments. The discussion examines the antecedents and consequences of consumer identification. Based on the review, the need for further research on consumer identification is highlighted. Chapter Four presents a preliminary conceptualisation of consumer-brand identification construct built on the foundations of social identity approach. The chapter goes on to discuss the conceptual distinction between consumer-brand identification and other conceptually similar constructs that have been identified in the marketing literature.

Chapter Five is concerned with the development of a conceptual framework which will then be tested to assess the nomological validity of the newly developed scale of consumer-brand identification. The chapter provides an overview of the proposed antecedents and consequences and then highlights the rationale underlying the hypothesised relationships included in the conceptual model. Chapter Six provides a detailed description of the methodology employed for developing a valid and rigorous measurement scale of consumer-brand identification construct. The chapter outlines the research design chosen and details the scale development process. A discussion on the sampling process, product categories and brands selected, questionnaire design process, and the chosen data analyses techniques is then presented.

Chapter Seven is concerned with the analysis conducted in the first and second phases in the scale development process. A discussion of the two stages of expert item judging conducted to assess the content validity of the initial item pool are presented. The chapter then presents the findings of the second phase which includes two independent studies with different product categories and brands. In the first study, the purification and initial dimensionality of the scale including the application of exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis are presented. To further purify the scale, the chapter includes details of exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis carried out on a further independent sample, along with details of tests performed to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the scale. The chapter then reports on the common method bias and measurement invariance analysis carried out on the data collected from the second sample. Chapter Eight reports the analysis conducted in the third phase of the scale development process. It begins with a description of exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis performed to further refine the scale and verifies its dimensionality using a third independent sample. The empirical analysis results of the structural model are then reported in detail providing an assessment of the nomological validity of the scale.

Chapter Nine discusses the findings in the context of the literature. Firstly, the chapter concentrates upon findings related to the conceptualisation, dimensionality, and measurement of consumer-brand identification. The chapter then moves to the discussion of the findings built upon the conceptual model and hypotheses developed for this research. Chapter Ten discusses the theoretical and managerial implications drawn from the research findings. Limitations of the research are then outlined and the thesis concludes by presenting insights and future research directions.

CHAPTER TWO

THE SOCIAL IDENTITY PERSPECTIVE TO CONSUMER IDENTIFICATION

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the relevant literature pertaining to consumer identification primarily from social psychology, organisational behaviour and marketing perspectives. This chapter provides an overview of the social identity approach, the theoretical foundation of the identification construct. Social identity approach has been the dominant theory in studying organisational identification for more than two decades and then has been extended to the marketing literature. Nearly, all marketing articles have utilised organisational behaviour articles on organisational identification for theory building. Thus, to understand the concept of consumer identification, social identity approach and organisational identification research need to be reviewed. The chapter is divided into four parts. The first part describes the nature of identity and then provides an overview of identification from different perspectives. Social identity approach (i.e. social identity theory and self-categorisation theory) is then presented in the second part. The third section begins by a discussion of organisational identity, followed by an overview of organisational identification. Finally, the following section reviews both corporate and brand identities, followed by a brief overview of consumer identification. The concept of consumer identification is reviewed in more details in Chapter Three. Figure 2.1 shows how the chapter is structured.

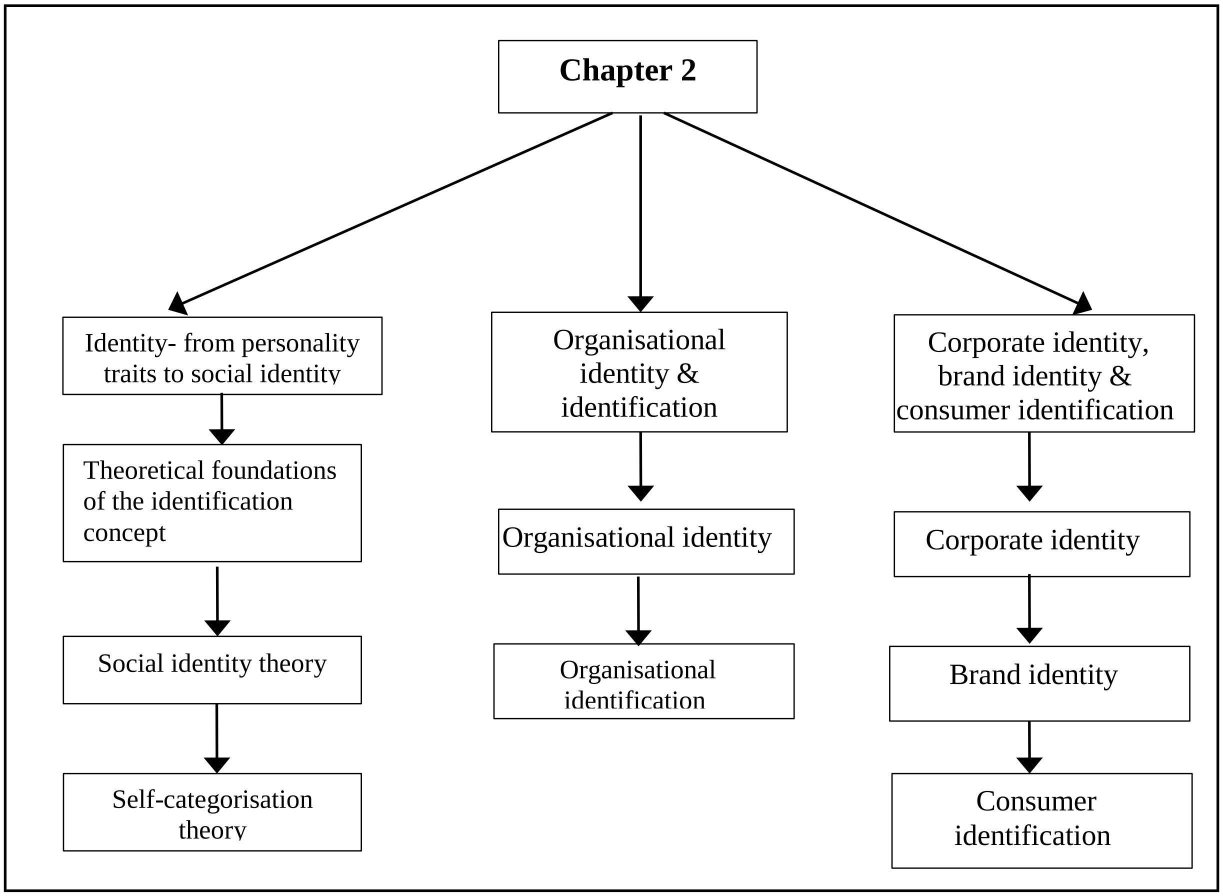


Figure 2.1 Structure of Chapter Two

2.2 Identity- From Personality Traits to Social Identity

Identity is a widely used term and thus can mean different things to different people (Deaux, 2001). Most fundamentally, identity involves explicit or implicit responses to the questions “Who am I?” or “Who are we?” (Vignoles et al., 2011). Identity can be understood and defined at three different levels: individual/personal, relational, and social/collective (Sedikides & Brewer, 2001). These different forms of identity differ not only in terms of identity content but also in terms of processes by which identities are formed, maintained or changed over time (Vignoles et al., 2011). Individual or personal identity reflects aspects of self-definition at the individual level including goal, values, beliefs, traits, or characteristics (Vignoles et al., 2011). Relational identity refers to qualities that are associated with people's social roles and relationships such as spouse, parent, supervisor, customer, etc. (Swann & Bosson, 2010; Vignoles et al., 2011). Social or collective identity refers to those qualities and aspects of a person that are defined in terms of groups memberships including ethnicity, nationality, religion, gender, etc. (Deaux, 2001; Swann & Bosson, 2010; Vignoles et al., 2011).

Beyond individual, relational and collective identities, identity can be further extended to include material identities. According to James (1890), a person's identity includes not only the individual's own body, friends, family but also his cloths, house and possessions. Those psychical entities are not simply valued for their functions but because they are psychologically part of who we are. Sometimes people define themselves by what they have rather than by what they do (Brown, 1998). Taken together, identity can be operationally defined as including one's personal traits and characteristics, roles and positions, membership in social groups and categories, and his or her material possessions (Vignoles et al., 201). Unlike Hogg and Abrams (1988) who made substantive distinction between personal and social identities, Deaux (1993) argued that distinguishing between different levels of identities is somewhat arbitrary. Deaux (1993) suggested that personal, relational and social identities are interrelated rather than separable. This is consistent with Tajfel and Turner (1979) who proposed that personal and social identities constitute a continuum where personal identity anchors one end of the continuum and social identity anchors the other.

2.3 Theoretical Foundations of the Identification Concept

The concept of identification has a long history in psychology, sociology and social psychology. Identification generally refers to "the extent to which individuals define themselves in terms of another individual, relationship, or group" (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010: 517). In a broad sense, the notion of identification has been advanced primarily in three different research traditions (Reed II, 2002). The first school of thought, which is grounded in the psychological theories, focus on the individual (e.g. one's father, model) as an identification target (Reed II, 2002). Tolman (1943) stated that one type of identification is the process where the individual tries to copy some other older and important person. Kelman (1961) referred to identification with an individual as "classical identification" where the individual attempts to be like or actually to be the other person. The individual is motivated to identify with a model in order to possess some of the model's desired characteristics (Kagan, 1958) and maintain a positive self-defining relationship (Kelman, 1961). That is, when the individual has developed some degree of identification with the model he may anticipate that when the model is successful, he is also successful. However, if the model is no longer perceived in an attractive manner, the motivation for identification may decrease. Identification is reinforced each time the individual perceives or is told that he is similar to the model (Kagan, 1958). In line with this, Freud (1949: 65) proposed that identification "may arise with every new perception of a common quality shared with some other person". It should be noted that identification is not viewed as all-or-none process but varies in strength and degree to which the person believes the characteristics of a model belong to him. In addition, the person may identify with a variety of models in different degrees (Kagan, 1958).

The second school of thought relies on identity theory (Stryker & Serpe, 1982), which is a sociological theory, referring to identification as self-categorisation in terms of particular social roles, and incorporating the meanings and expectations associated with that role and its performance into the self (Stets & Burke, 2000). Identity theorists have mainly focused on discrete roles such as worker, parent and student and how these roles link with other complementary roles (e.g. nurse-patient) (Ashforth et al., 2008). Role identities are self-definitions not only because they refer to specific roles but also because they differentiate between roles and other relevant roles (Hogg et al., 1995). For example, the role of supervisor is meaningless without the complementary role of subordinate or the role of doctor in connection with nurse (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Relational identification refers to "the extent to which one defines oneself in terms of a given role-relationship" (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007: 11). The meanings and expectations associated with the social role, acquired though social interaction, guide the individual's behaviour. The perception that one is performing the role in a satisfactory way enhances the individual's self-esteem, whereas perception of poor role performance may affect one's self-esteem negatively (Hogg et al., 1995).

The third school of thought, heavily grounded in social identity approach (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), focuses more on identifying with social categories or social groups. Whereas social roles are potential targets for identification in identity theory, social groups or categories are potential targets for identification in social identity approach. The basic idea is that the social category (such as nationality, organisation, sports team, company, product, or brand) to which one identifies with, provides partly a definition of who one is in terms of its defining characteristics (Hogg et al., 1995). Social identity approach is discussed in more details in the next section as it constitutes the theoretical underpinnings of consumer identification in the marketing literature.

2.3.1 Social Identity Approach

The social identity approach (i.e. social identity perspective), referring collectively to social identity theory (SIT) and self-categorisation theory (SCT) (Hornsey, 2008), constitutes the theoretical underpinnings for this research. Social identity approach has been proposed as a fruitful theoretical basis for conceptualising the identification construct, understanding how social identification is developed, and explaining consumers' attitudes and behaviours as a result of identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Reed II, 2002; Van Dick, 2004). SIT (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) sets out to explain social self, group processes and intergroup relations. SCT (Turner et al., 1987), which is considered an elaboration and extension of SIT, discusses in detail the categorisation process as the basis of intragroup behaviour. Whereas the two theories have different foci and emphases, they share most of the assumptions and have the same ideological perspective (Hornsey, 2008). In this research, SIT provides the foundation for consumer-brand identification conceptualisation, whereas SCT delivers more details on the cognitive dimension of identification and provides further understanding on the collective behaviour resulting from identification.

2.3.1.1 Social Identity Theory

The social identity theory was developed by Tajfel and Turner (1979) to supplement the realistic group conflict theory in some aspects (Sherif, 1966). Realistic group conflict theory explains intergroup conflict as resulting from opposed group interests in gaining scarce resources. These real conflicts between groups engender identification with and attachment to the in-group. However, the realistic conflict theory does not emphasise the processes underlying the development of group identity and the impact of psychological group membership on the in-group and intergroup behaviour (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In their minimal group studies, Tajfel et al. (1971) created groups using meaningless and arbitrary criteria, such as preference for a certain abstract painting. After groups were created and participants were told their group membership, participants then had to allocate points to members in their own group (in-group) and members of the other group (the out-group). It was shown that individuals evaluated in-group members more positively, distributed more money to in-group members, and attempted to maximise the differences between in- and out-group if given the chance to, although there was no conflict of interests, interdependence, future interaction or material self-interest for doing so. Tajfel et al. (1971) argued that participants were obeying a norm of competitive group behaviour. These experiments simply showed that explicit random assignment of groups resulted in in-group favouritism and discrimination against the out-group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), resulting from participants ‘struggle to differentiate between their group and other groups and thus achieve a positive social identity (Abrams & Hogg, 1988). Overall, the main assumptions of SIT can be summarised as follows (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Van Dick, 2001, 2004): (1) people strive for maintaining and enhancing a positive self-esteem, (2) an individual social identity, a part of one's self-concept, is partially derived from group memberships, (3) to maintain and achieve a positive social identity, the individual's in-group must be perceived positively different or distinct from relevant out-groups.

In articulating the theory, Tajfel (1981: 255) proposed that one's self-concept is comprised of a personal identity encompassing specific personal attributes (such as values, goals, interest, abilities, traits etc.) and multiple social identities defined as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership". Social behaviour is determined on a bipolar spectrum, with individual characteristics and interpersonal relationships (i.e. purely interpersonal behaviour) at the personal identity extreme, and respective memberships in social groups or categories (i.e. purely intergroup behaviour) at the social identity extreme (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). It is argued that in any given situation, only the most salient identity governs one's social behaviour and perception (Hogg, 2006). In shaping the self-concept, SIT places more emphasis on social identity, derived from social categories to which the individual belongs, compared to personal identity. Two processes, social categorisation and social comparison, primarily guide social identity and intergroup behaviour (Hogg, 2006; Hogg et al., 2004; Stets & Burke, 2000).

Social categorisation is one of the underlying sociocognitive processes that account for social identity phenomena (Hogg et al., 1995). Individuals tend to categorise themselves and others as members into various social groups such as occupations, organisations, sports teams, clubs, religious institutions, educational institutions, race, gender, nationality to name but a few. A social group refers to a collection of individuals who perceive themselves as members of the same social category or group (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). Therefore, the essential criterion for group membership is that individuals define themselves and are defined by others as members of a group rather than the frequency of intragroup interaction or interdependent goals (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This social categorisation, resulting in accentuation of similarities and differences, allows individuals not only to cognitively segment, classify and order the social environment but also provides them with a means to define themselves and others and assign themselves a place in the society (i.e. self-reference) (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). For example, a woman may define herself in terms of the actual or symbolic group(s) with which she categorises herself (I am a British; I am a woman; I am a member of X) (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Accordingly, the social identity is derived from salient social groups which individuals perceive themselves as belonging. That is, social groups or categories "provide their members with an identification of themselves in social terms" (Tajfel & Turner, 1979: 40). However, identifying with social groups is not an all-or-one phenomenon but a matter of degree (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; O'Reilly III & Chatman, 1986).

Social identities are not only descriptive and prescriptive, they are also evaluative" (Hogg et al., 1995: 260). Social identities derive their descriptive, evaluative properties and social meanings relative to other social categories (Hogg, 2001). Social comparison processes between groups emphasize "the establishment of distinctiveness between one's own and other groups" (Hogg et al., 2004: 257).

Individuals strive to achieve a positive self-esteem (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) either by trying to enhance their personal identity and/or their social identity (Edwards, 2005). Since achieving a positive self-esteem is based partly on positive social identity, members are motivated to assign themselves in social categories that are positively evaluated by others relative to other salient out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Positive distinctiveness for in-group "serves to protect, enhance, preserve, or achieve a positive social identity for members of the group" (Tajfel, 1982: 24). Moreover, individuals can achieve self-enhancement by comparing their in-group to relevant out-groups on stereotypical dimensions that favour the in-group and consequently one's social identity (Hogg et al., 1995). Thus, the positive or negative conceptions of a social category are comparative and relational in nature (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

When social groups are not evaluated favourably in relation to relevant out-groups, resulting in less contribution to positive social identity, individuals would resort to three main strategies: social mobility, social creativity, and social competition (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Social mobility involves an individual's tendency to leave or dissociate himself from the social group (either physically or psychologically), and usually move from a low-status to a high-status group. Social creativity refers to a person's attempt to "seek positive distinctiveness for the in-group by redefining or altering the elements of the comparative situation" (Tajfel & Turner, 1979: 43). Social creativity can take multiple forms such as comparing the in-group with the out-group on some new aspects, changing the values assigned to the dimensions of social comparison resulting in positive rather than negative evaluation, or selecting other relevant out-groups for social comparison rather than high status out-groups. Therefore, social creativity involves "strong belief in the superiority of the group with which a person identifies and prejudice against the non-identified group" (Lam et al., 2010: 133). Whereas social mobility is an individualist approach, social creativity is a group strategy. On the other hand, social competition refers to direct competition with the out-group to achieve positive distinctiveness. That is, individuals may engage in social change to reverse the existing positions of the in-group and the out-group (Hornsey, 2008). While social mobility and social creativity strategies do not lead to any change in the groups' actual position, social competition implies a change in the group's social location and its objectives (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The choice of the strategy to cope with the group unfavourable comparison depends on a number of circumstances including the degree to which the boundaries between the groups are permeable and the degree to which changing the group is legitimate and realistic (Hornsey, 2008). For instance, when the boundaries between groups are permeable and changing the group is realistic, social mobility may be a viable strategy to be adopted.

2.3.1.2 Self-Categorisation Theory

Self-categorisation theory (SCT), an extension and development of social identity theory (SIT), was developed by Turner et al. (1987). SCT seeks to further elaborate the categorisation process i.e. the cognitive element of the theory (Hornsey, 2008), that creates a collective sense of self and leads to collective behaviour. Specifically, Hogg and Terry (2000: 123) view SCT ''as that component of an extended social identity theory of the relationship between self-concept and group behaviour that details the social cognitive processes that generate social identity effects". Whereas SIT posits that interpersonal and intergroup relationships are opposite ends of a bipolar continuum, SCT proposes that individuals can categorise and compare themselves at three different levels: on a superordinate level as a human being (who is then compared with other species) (human identity), on a subordinate level as an individual (who then compares himself with other individuals) (personal identity), and on an intermediate or group level as a member of a social in-group (which is then compared with relevant out-groups) (social identity) (Hornsey, 2008; Van Dick, 2001). Tuner et al. (1994: 454) define social identity as "self-categories that define the individual in terms of his or her shared similarities with members of certain social categories in contrast to other social categories ".

Self-categorisation and intergroup behaviours occur as a function of both identification and salience (Van Dick et al., 2006). Identification refers to the extent to which an individual perceives that he or she fits into the category and that this social category is relevant to his or her identity. On the other hand, salience rests on the two notions of accessibility and fit (Van Dick et al., 2006). Categories may be chronically accessible if they are valued, important and frequently activated, or they may be situationally accessible if they are perceived to be salient in the immediate situation (Hogg, 2006). Fit refers to the degree to which the social categories reveal the real world differences (Hornsey, 2008). Whereas comparative fit indicates how well categorisation accounts for intragroup similarities and intergroup differences, normative fit indicates how well social behaviour is in line with stereotypical properties of the categorisation (Hogg, 2006). The social categories that are easily accessible and have optimal fit become salient and constitute the basis of self-categorisation, group identification, depersonalisation and intergroup behaviours.

From the SCT perspective, people cognitively represent a social category or group in terms of prototypes (Hogg & Terry, 2000). A prototype is a subjective set of the defining attributes (e.g. perceptions, attitudes, feelings, and behaviours) that simultaneously capture intragroup similarities and intergroup differences, along with a prescription of group membership-related behaviours (Hogg, 2006; Hogg et al., 2004). Prototypes are not checklists of attributes rather they "describe ideal, often hypothesised, in-group members" (Hogg et al., 2004: 254). Prototypes are formed according to the principle of meta-contrast that is maximising the ratio of perceived intergroup differences to intragroup differences, and thus accentuating within- group similarities and between-groups differences (Hogg, 2006). Prototypes are context-specific and thus changes in the social comparative context can lead to changes in prototypes and self-conception (Hogg et al., 1995). SCT proposes that individual self-perception become depersonalised when the social identity is perceived as salient (Turner et al., 1994). That is an individual is seen through the lens of the prototype rather than being perceived as an idiosyncratic individual (Hogg, 2006). Depersonalised individuals are "perceived as, are reacted to, and act as embodiments of the relevant in-group prototype rather than as unique individuals" (Hogg et al., 1995: 261). It is worth noting that depersonalisation is not the same as dehumanisation. Dehumanisation is defined as "the perception of a person as not having qualities that warrant treating him or her as human being" (Hogg, 2006: 118). Through depersonalisation, the individual shifts from personal to collective identity where he starts to define himself in terms of stereotypical group characteristics i.e. acts as an exemplar and representative of some shared social categorical membership. Depersonalisation underpins group behaviour such as group cohesiveness, cooperation, altruism, emotional contagion, empathy, and collective action (Hogg et al., 1995; Thoits & Virshup, 1997).

2.4 Organisational Identity and Identification

The tenets of the social identity approach have laid the theoretical foundation for the organisational identification construct over the last two decades (Riketta, 2005). Based on the notion that social identification affects social behaviour, the social identity approach has been extensively used to understand employees' relationships with their organisations (e.g. Johnson et al., 2012; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Organisational identity has been combined with social identity theory to shed light on the process of identification. Specifically, the connection between identity and identification and its impact on employees' attitudes and behaviours has been examined as a critical issue in organisational studies (e.g. Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Dutton et al., 1994). To understand the theoretical underpinnings of consumer identification, the concepts of organisational identity, organisational identification and their associations with social identity theory need to be discussed. This section of the chapter begins with a review of the nature of organisational identity, followed by a discussion of organisational identification.

2.4.1 Organisational Identity

Basically, organisational identity is the set of meanings or associations that answers the questions of “who are we?” and “what kind of organisation is this?” (Albert & Whetten, 1985; Brown et al., 2006). The organisation’s identity is shaped by the organisation’s goals, missions, practices, structure, processes and climate (Scott & Lane, 2000) and characterised by being central, distinctive, and enduring (Albert & Whetten, 1985). The more the identity perceptions are widely shared and accepted by stakeholders, the stronger the identity of the organisation (Ashforth et al., 2008). Albert and Whetten (1985: 265) defined organisational identity as “the shared understanding of the central, distinctive, and enduring character of an organisation”, whereas Hatch and Shultz (1997: 357) referred to organisational identity as “a collective, commonly shared understanding of the organisation’s distinctive values and characteristics”. As a consequent, organisational identity is seen as a “system of shared meaning” (Cornelissen et al., 2007: 3).

On the other hand, the adoption of the social identity perspective in the organisational settings catalysed another stream of identity studies, which are “manifested in terms of the identity in the organisation (organisational identity) and identity with the organisation (organisational identification)” (He & Balmer, 2007: 769). Dutton et al. (1994) placed emphasis on how any organisational member sees an organisation’s identity i.e. what the organisational member perceives as central, distinctive and enduring about the organisation. This descriptive view is labelled as perceived organisational identity (Dutton et al., 1994). The member’s perception of the organisational identity may or may not match the collective shared beliefs of the organisation's distinctive characteristics. Further, Dutton et al. (1994) differentiated between perceived organisational identity, which is the image each member holds of the organisation, and construed external image, which is the member's perceptions of how outsiders see the organisation. As well, the member's assessment of the organisation's character may or may not align with his or her beliefs of how outsiders perceive the organisation. Both perceived organisational identity and construed external image are important in that they may influence the extent to which employees identify with their employing organisation. When employees perceive the organisational identity as attractive (i.e. the extent to which it contributes to self-consistency, self-enhancement, and self-distinctiveness), they are more likely to identify with the organisation (Dutton et al., 1994). That is, identification deals with the "consequence of identity, instead of identity itself" (He & Balmer, 2007: 769). In other words, organisational identity, which is considered a particular form of social identity, is seen as "a self-definition or cognitive self-representation adopted by organisational members" (Cornelissen et al., 2007: 6). Applying the ideas of social identity theory to organisational settings, the organisational identity that is salient for organisational members constitutes the basis for identification and leads to a range of citizenship behaviours and support for the organisation.

2.4.2 Organisational Identification

In the last two decades, the notion of organisational identification (OI) has become a key concept in the area of organisational behaviour and has attracted increasing attention among organisational scholars where the number of conceptual and empirical studies addressing OI as a unique construct increased markedly

(Edwards, 2005; Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Riketta, 2005 e.g. Dutton et al., 1994; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Pratt, 1998; Van Dick, 2001). Although March and Simon (1958) were the first to propose a detailed model of OI, there were only a few number of studies explicitly focusing on OI (e.g. Brown, 1969; Lee, 1971; Patchen, 1970). For instance, following Kelman (1958), Brown (1969: 347) referred to OI as “self-defining response, set in a specific relationship”, and that identification occurs “when an individual accepts influence because he wants to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship to another person or group”. This implies that an individual strives to maintain a satisfying relationship driven by his or her self-definitional needs. Brown (1969) extended to suggest that OI comprises four basic components: attraction to the organisation, consistency of individual and organisational goals, loyalty, and the reference of self to organisational membership. Patchen (1970) defined identification as involving some degree of solidarity, support of the organisation and perception of shared characteristics. Additionally, Patchen (1970: 158) clarified the relationship among the three proposed components of identification, “when a person perceives that one's characteristics are similar to those of other members within the organisation, the person feels the sense of belongingness, which, in turn, is likely to motivate him or her to behave for the organisation in a positive manner" (Patchen, 1970: 158).

At around the same time, Lee (1971) suggested that identification consists of a number of different constructs: a sense of belongingness because of common goals with others in the organisation, loyalty in terms of attitudes and behaviours that support the organisation, and shared characteristics showing the similarities between the individual and others in the organization. This shows that early conceptualisations of identification are fairly broad and encompass a range of different concepts: loyalty (Brown, 1969; Lee, 1971), shared characteristics (Lee, 1971; Patchen, 1970), attraction to the organisation (Brown, 1969), support (Patchen, 1970), consistency of organisational and individual goals (Brown, 1969), feeling of solidarity (Patchen, 1970), sense of belongingness (Lee, 1971), and reference of self to organisational membership (Brown, 1969). Whereas attraction to the organisation is regarded as a potential antecedent of identification (Dutton et al., 1994), loyalty is considered a potential consequence of identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Such a wide range of components encompassing identification is likely to be addressing constructs beyond the notion of identification (Edwards, 2005).

OI was rediscovered in the late 1980s only after Ashforth and Mael (1989) outlined the relevance of social identity approach to organisation studies. As such, OI has become a unique research topic and social identity approach has been the most dominant theory in studying OI (Riketta, 2005). That is, the resurgence of OI as an established construct in organisational behaviour is attributed to the application of social identity approach to organisational studies (He & Mukherjee, 2009). According to Ashforth and Mael (1989), OI is considered a specific form of social identification where the individual defines himself or herself partly in terms of the membership of the organisation. Social identification implies “a psychological merging of self and group that leads individuals to see the self as similar to other members of the collective, to ascribe group-defining characteristics to the self, and to take the collective’s interest to heart” (Van knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006: 572). It has been proposed that employees’ identification with the organisation can benefit both the organisation and the employees themselves (Edwards, 2005; Edwards & Peccei, 2007). For the organisation, employees' identification with their organisation is more likely to result in lower turnover and absenteeism (Van Dick et al., 2004), more cooperation and altruism (Edwards & Peccei, 2007), greater levels of extra-role behaviour and support for the organisation (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Van Dick, 2004). For the individuals, higher levels of identification with the organisation helps them to satisfy one or more of their self-definitional needs, achieve a positive social identity, and satisfy their human need to belong (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; Edwards & Peccei, 2007).

Based on earlier research, OI is likely to be a primarily pure cognitive construct. Ashforth and Mael (1989) emphasised the cognitive aspect of identification, followed by Dutton et al. (1994) and Bergami and Bagozzi (2000). Ashforth and Mael (1989) argued that conceptualising OI as a perceptual cognitive construct is critical to differentiate it from any specific behaviours or affective states (this point is discussed in more details in Chapter 3). Ashforth and Mael (1989: 21) defined identification as "the perception of oneness with or belongingness to some human aggregate"; Dutton et al. (1994: 242) conceptualised identification as "the cognitive connection between the definition of an organisation and the definition a person applies to him-or herself"; and Bergami and Bagozzi (2000: 557) referred to identification as "a cognitive state of self-categorisation". Whereas Ashforth and Mael's (1989) definition focused on the cognitive state of self-categorisation, Dutton et al. (1994) took the definition a step further to include the process of comparison of personal attributes with organisational attributes (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). It is worth noting that Bergami and Bagozzi

(2000) argued that the process of comparison of personal attributes with organisation attributes might influence identification, thereby serving as an antecedent rather than being a part of it. Pratt (1998) proposed that identification occurs when a person's beliefs about the organisation is either self-referential where the individual perceives the group as similar to one' self or self-defining where the individual changes to become more similar to the group. This self-referential or self-definitional aspect of being an organisational member results in experiencing the organisation's successes and failures as his or her outcome and thus contributes to the organisation's interests and goals (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

It is obvious that the above researchers tend to emphasise the thinking aspects of social identity approach ignoring the emotional and evaluative elements of identification i.e. they only apply a small part of social identity theory (SIT) (Van Dick, 2001). Whereas cognitively oriented authors often present the phenomenon in a quite dry and computational way, they write about identification using emotional terms (Edwards, 2005). Notwithstanding the appeal of the identification, as a "state of social-categorisation" (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000: 557), view that underpins much of the logic of the cognitive school of thought, this view has been challenged by a number of organisational scholars who support the multidimensional nature of identification. Edwards and Peccei (2007) argued that focusing only on the cognitive aspect deprives the identification construct from a large part of its explanatory power and does not reflect the complexity of SIT. Edwards and Peccei (2007: 30) therefore defined OI as a "psychological linkage between the individual and the organisation whereby the individual feels a deep, self-defining affective and cognitive bond with the organisation as a social entity”. Ellemers et al. (1999) proposed that three aspects, namely, cognitive component, emotional component and evaluative component, contribute to one’s social identity. Ellemers et al. (1999) concluded that the emotional element of identification is the key aspect that drives people tendency to behave in terms of their group membership. Van Dick et al. (2004) added a fourth component, which reflects the behavioural dimension of identification. Van Dick et al. (2004) demonstrated that the cognitive component of identification is related to team climate, the affective dimension is associated with turnover intensions and finally both the evaluative and affective dimensions influence job satisfaction. Proponents of multidimensional nature of identification argued that based on SIT and for identification to occur, the individual must value and feel this association (Ashforth et al., 2008). Despite the potential importance of the OI construct in helping to ensure that the employees work towards the organisation’s goals and interests, there is still no clear consensus on the precise meaning of the construct with different authors focusing on different facets of identification (Edwards & Peccei, 2007).

2.5 Corporate Identity, Brand Identity, and Consumer Identification

Just as organisational behaviour literature has focused on organisational identity, the discussion of identity in the marketing literature has primarily developed around the concept of corporate identity. Corporate identity research in marketing has drawn partly from the organisational studies perspective and suggested that consumer identification is the mechanism by how corporate identity leads to positive consumer responses (He & Balmer, 2007; He & Mukherjee, 2009). This section provides a brief overview of corporate identity and brand identity, followed by a discussion of consumer identification.

2.5.1 Corporate Identity

Traditionally, corporate identity has been developed and examined in the marketing literature whereas organisational identity has been developed in the organisational behaviour literature and both concepts have been conceptualised from different theoretical perspectives. More precisely, the literature of these two concepts has been developed independently and both concepts have been treated as distinct constructs with different theoretical basis. Basically, earlier definitions of corporate identity were restricted to logos and other elements of visual design (Cornelissen et al., 2007; Van Riel & Balmer, 1997) i.e. corporate visual identity (Balmer, 1998). For instance, Carter (1982: 5) defined corporate identity as “the logo or brand image of a company and all other visual manifestations of the identity of a company”, whereas Dowling (1994: 8) referred to corporate identity as “the symbols an organisation uses to identify itself with people”.

Gradually, the understanding of corporate identity has extended beyond just a logo and visible outward presentation of a company to include the organisation defining traits or intrinsic characteristics (Balmer, 1998; Cornelissen et al., 2007). Among the most important traits identified by scholars are company strategy, philosophy, history, policies, the range and type of products and services offered, communications both formal and informal, and the personnel behaviour (Balmer, 1998; Moingeon & Ramanantsoa, 1997). That is, corporate identity is not visual design and communication per se, but is primarily concerned with "what the organisation is" (Cornelissen et al., 2007: 7). Hence, the management of corporate identity is considered of strategic importance to modern organisations (Melewar et al., 2006). Abratt (1989: 68) considered corporate identity as "an assembly of visual cues- physical and behavioural- by which an audience can recognise the company and distinguish it from others and which can be used to represent or symbolise the company". In addition to emphasising the role of visual cues and behaviour, Abratt (1989) focused on distinct qualities of the organisation that differentiate it from others. In a similar vein, Balmer and Gray (2003: 125) defined corporate identity as "encompassing an organisation's distinctive attributes". Balmer (2010: 188) indicated that corporate identity refers to those "organisational characteristics that anchor an organisation in a given period of time". Furthermore, Melewar (2003: 197) defined corporate identity as "the set of meanings by which a company allows itself to be known and through which it allows people to describe, remember and relate to it. In addition to the unique qualities of the organisation, Van Riel (1997: 290-291) emphasised the intrinsic characteristics that give the company its stability, differentiation, and centrality by defining corporate identity as "the presentation of an organisation, rooted in the behaviour of individual organisational members, expressing the organisation's "sameness over time" or continuity, "distinctiveness" and "centrality". In this sense, the traits of corporate identity resemble the organisational identity conceptualisation proposed by Albert and Whetten (1985) i.e. the central, distinctive, and enduring character of an organisation.

Marketers have begun to explore the links between corporate identity, organisational identity, and the relationship that exists between the organisation and its stakeholders (e.g. employees and customers) (Cornelissen et al., 2007). This has resulted in points of convergence between the two disciplines (He & Balmer, 2007). As a result, many authors argue for interdisciplinary perspective that incorporates insights from both fields (Cardador & Pratt, 2006). In others words, research addressing organisational identity can influence the research on corporate identity and helps in better understanding of corporate identity and vice versa i.e. both fields are mutually enriching (Balmer, 2008; He & Balmer, 2007). Although there are important differences (will be discussed later) between social, organisational and corporate identities, Cornelissen et al. (2007) suggested that key insights drawn independently from the three literatures are compatible with each other. Specifically, Cornelissen et al. (2007: 8) proposed that collective identities (whether social, organisational or corporate) are (a) viable as a function of their positivity and distinctiveness, (b) inherently fluid, (c) a basis for shared perceptions and behaviour, (d) strategically created and managed, (e) associated with behaviour that is qualitatively different from that associated with lower-order identities, and (f) a basis for achievement of higher-order material outcomes and products. Cornelissen et al. (2007) provided more clarification regarding the relationship between social, organisational and corporate identities, “a social identity can be grounded in organisational group membership and hence be an organisational identity, and an organisational identity can relate to a corporate entity and inform the perceptions and interaction of its stakeholders and hence be a corporate identity”.

On the other hand, He and Balmer (2007) and Balmer (2008) argued that corporate and organisational identities differ in three ways. First, corporate identity tends to have more external (customer/stakeholder) focus and characterised by adopting practical and managerial perspectives. Whereas organisational identity is more likely to have internal focus (employee) and richer theoretical foundation (Balmer, 2008). Second, corporate identity refers to substantive traits of the company (i.e. visual or verbal cues or distinctive attributes) and whose impact is observable, whereas organisational identity is primary treated as a cognitive concept (He & Balmer, 2007). Third, in terms of analysis level, corporate identity is studied at the corporate level, while organisational identity is at the individual level (He & Balmer, 2007).

2.5.2 Brand Identity

The metaphorical use of the identity concept in the corporate settings indicates that organisations can be described as possessing a distinct set of attributes similar to those of human beings i.e. corporate identity refers to that set of attributes that distinguish one organisation from another (Bromley, 2001). In this regard, Aaker (1996: 68) defined brand identity as “a unique set of brand associations”. Both concepts have the same theoretical basis, which is the set of attributes or characteristics that exhibit the entity uniqueness compared to others. The similarities between corporate and brand identities are outlined to help understand the concept of consumer-company or brand-identification. Aaker (1996: 68) defined brand identity as “a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or maintain”. Moreover, Aaker and Joachminsthaler (2000: 13) defined brand identity as tool that “represents what the organisation can and will do over time”. These definitions imply that brand identity is an internal construct that emanates from the organisation. Recently, de Chernatony (2010: 55) challenged this view by arguing that “one of the weaknesses of this perspective is that managers focus on the internal aspect of branding” and that needs “to be given to the way customers perceive the brand”.

Drawing on the work of Hatch and Schultz (2000), de Chernatony (2010: 53) described brand identity as “the distinctive or central idea of a brand and how the brand communicates this idea to its stakeholders”. This perspective addresses a more strategic approach that bears some resemblance to corporate identity. Moreover, rather than considering customers only, de Chernatony (2010) approach suggests, similarly to corporate identity, that considering multiple stakeholders is particularly important. Although brand identity definitions suggest that brand identity originates from insiders (i.e. brand managers or brand strategist), brand identity frameworks appear to consider the external perceptions of consumers (da Silveira et al., 2013). For instance, Kapferer’s (2008: 186) hexagonal brand identity prism included psychical qualities, personality (picture of sender), customer reflection, self-image (picture of recipient), culture and relationship. Whereas customer reflection refers to the “target’s outward mirror (they are …)”, self-image refers to the “the target’s internal mirror (I feel, I am …)” (Kapferer, 2008: 186). Kapferer’s (2008) framework addressed the following issues. First, reflection and self-image define the receiver while physique and personality define the sender. Second, relationship and culture link the sender and recipient. Third, the facets to the left (i.e. physique, relationship and reflection) are social which are visible and provide the brand‘s external expression. On the other hand, the facets to the right (i.e. personality, culture and self-image) are incorporated within the brand itself, within its essence. Overall, it appears that there is convergence between brand identity, corporate identity, and organisational identity literatures regarding the concept of identity, where identity can be described as "a dynamic concept that originates among insiders, and develops through mutually influencing inputs from insiders and outsiders, entailing distinguishing, central, and enduring attributes" (da Silveira et al., 2013: 4).

2.5.3 Consumer Identification

Identity and Identification are prevalent and impactful as both terms can operate across different levels of analysis (Albert et al., 2000). Any social category, group, organisation, team, or product that embodies desirable characteristics and can be used by individuals to construct and maintain their social identity represents a potential target for identification (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). In simple terms, identification involves a psychological linkage between a target entity and an individual (Edwards, 2005; Edwards & Peccei, 2007). Research suggests that individuals' identification with a particular marketing entity (e.g. company, brand, or brand community) is based on their perceptions of its identity i.e. its core or defining attributes (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Dutton et al., 1994). As previously discussed, identity entails attributes or characteristics that are central, distinctive and enduring. Earlier, most empirical research on identification has been applied in profit and non-profit organisations where respondents are members of settings such as alumni of school (Mael & Ashforth, 1992), art museums members (Bhattacharya et al., 1995), and MBA students (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996). The application of the identification concept in the marketing literature, building on social identity theory and organisational identification, was first investigated by Bhattacharya et al. (1995). Specifically, the extent to which members of an art museum identify with that particular museum was examined.

As previously stated in Section 2.3.1.1, an explicit random assignment of individuals to groups resulted in intragroup cooperation and intergroup discrimination. This led Turner (1984: 530) to suggest the existence of a psychological group defined as" a collection of people who share the same social identification or define themselves in terms of the same social category membership" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In a similar vein, Brewer and Gardener (1996: 83) argued that social connections entailed in social identities is described as "impersonal bonds derived from common identification with some symbolic group or social category" and that social identities "do not require personal relationships among group members". That is, social identification is likely to occur even in the absence of interaction and still has a powerful impact on individuals' behaviour (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Moreover, Scott and Lane (2000) in their study of stakeholders' (members and non-members) identification with the organisation proposed that formal membership is not a perquisite for identification. Thus, a sense of oneness with or belongingness to an entity is likely to be derived not only from physical belongingness or membership such as employees but also from psychological linkage to an entity.

Following the acknowledgment that identification is likely to occur even in the absence of formal membership and lack of interaction with other members, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) extended the concept of identification to the corporate context. Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) core argument is that some companies embody attractive and meaningful social identities to consumers that partially fulfil one or more of their key self-definitional needs (i.e. self-continuity, self-enhancement, and self-distinctiveness). Thus, it can be suggested that "such companies constitute valid targets for identification" (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003: 77). Marketing researchers have followed this argument and studies addressing consumer-company identification emerged (these studies are presented in Chapter 3). Following the same logic, the identification concept has been extended to consumer-brands relationships (e.g. Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; Lam et al., 2010; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012) given the following reasons. First, the loosening of group membership as a requirement for identification helped in extending the social identity theory to the branding context. Scott and Lane (2000: 49) argued that "customers, although objectively nonmembers of the Body Shop (brand), may socially identify with that organisation because they define both themselves and the Body Shop as animal rights supporters". Second, in the branding literature, it is widely acknowledged that brands, as sources of symbolic meanings, have the ability to maintain, inform and communicate desirable consumer identities (Escalas & Bettman, 2003; Fournier, 1998; Lam et al., 2010; Levy, 1959; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). Thus, brands can represent positive, attractive and meaningful social categories to which consumers can identify with or classify themselves as belonging to these brands. Third, brands may be more appropriate for consumers to identify with given that brands are more familiar to consumers compared to companies. Finally, companies may have multiple brands with different personalities so the focus of identification in case of companies may not be obvious (Tidesley & Coote, 2009).

Apart from consumer identification research rooted in social identity theory, in the area of consumer behaviour the association between the self-concept and consumers products and brands has received considerable attention (e.g. Belk, 1988; Levy, 1959). Gardner and Levy (1955) were among the first to focus on the importance of the social and psychological nature of products rather than their technical aspects. Levy (1959: 410) suggested that a product is appropriate when "it joins with, meshes with, adds to, or reinforces the way the consumer thinks about himself". Since Levy's argument (1959), although not considered a theory, studies have been conducted to unravel the role of consumers' self-concepts in consumer behaviour (Sirgy, 1982). Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) proposed that the consuming behaviour of an individual is directed towards enhancing one's self-concept through the consumption of goods that have desirable social meanings. Birdwell (1968) found a statistically significant relationship between the self-image and the owners' brand of automobile. Grubb and Hupp (1968) provided further empirical support for the relationship between self-concept and consumer behaviour. However, the above studies have been criticised for measuring the self-image/product image congruence after purchase not before, thus they failed to measure causality. This shows that self-image/product image congruity may not be the reason for consumer purchases (Evans, 1968; Landon, 1974). Green et al. (1969), in contrast to previous studies, failed to find a relationship between self-image and product preference. Furthermore, Green et al. (1969) and Hughes and Guerrero (1971) considered that the relationship between self-image/product-image congruity and product preference is not that simple as implied by previous studies.

In response to this, some researchers argued that the self-concept consists of two components: the actual self and the ideal self (e.g. Belch & Landon, 1977; Dolich, 1969; Landon, 1974). Dolich (1969) tested whether there is congruity between actual and ideal self and the product images of most and least preferred brands. It was found that real self-image and ideal self-image are equally related to consumer choice for most preferred product brands. Landon (1974) examined the relative influence of actual and ideal self-images on purchase intentions of consumers for a number of products. However, no consistent results were found. A lack of consistent results showed that the relationship between self-concept and consumer behaviour is not simple and direct as initially assumed (Landon, 1974). Moving away from the two-dimensional studies, researchers started to investigate the multidimensional self-concept (e.g. Aaker, 1999; Kleine et al., 1993; Markus & Kunda, 1986). The malleable self-concept has been used to examine its role in influencing consumer attitudes by taking personality and situational factors into consideration (Aaker, 1999). Kleine et al. (1993) found that individuals view their consumption experiences related more to specific social identities rather than their global self.

Despite their useful insights to consumer behaviour literature, the self-concept research in consumer behaviour has been characterised as fragmented (Reed II, 2002; Sirgy, 1982). Reed (2002) put forward a convincing argument that self-concept based consumer behaviour research could be supported by social identity theory. In line with this argument, there has been a shift towards understanding the relationships that consumers build with companies and brands from a social psychological perspective. To extend the identity research in the marketing literature and address this gap, the notion of consumer identification is further examined. Specifically, the conceptualisation, operationalisation, antecedents and consequences of consumer identification are discussed in details in the next chapter.

2.6 Summary

This chapter provided a comprehensive theoretical overview of the consumer identification literature. The concept of consumer identification has been developed by drawing on identification in related fields, including social identity approach and organisational identification. Reviewing the literature concluded that much research remains to be carried out on the concept of consumer identification. By relying on a systematic literature review of relevant peer-reviewed articles, the next chapter addresses three main issues: the conceptualisation of consumer identification in prior research, the measurement of consumer identification in empirical studies, and an expanded view of the antecedents and consequences of consumer identification.

CHAPTER THREE

SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF CONSUMER IDENTIFICATION LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided an overview of the consumer identification (CI) concept and its theoretical foundation rooted in social identity approach and organisational identification literature. This helped to clarify key conceptual terms, outline the theoretical basis of CI, and highlight the reliance of identification research in marketing on organisational behaviour literature. In this chapter, a comprehensive systematic literature review is undertaken to (1) facilitate an objective assessment of how CI has been conceptualised and measured in the marketing literature and (2) provide an expanded view of the antecedents and consequences of CI. Specifically, this chapter helps to address the first ("To critically assess whether existing conceptualisations of consumer identification adequately capture the underlying theoretical foundation of the construct") and second ("To critically evaluate whether available measurement scales of consumer identification reflect the domain of the construct and exhibit sufficient evidence of reliability and validity") research objectives. Addressing these research objectives lays the foundation for subsequent chapters where a theoretically grounded conceptualisation of consumer-brand identification is proposed, along with a valid, reliable and parsimonious measurement of the construct.

In organising this chapter, the method used for the systematic literature review is first described. Next, attention is directed to the results of this review, in particular the diverse ways of defining CI and the psychometric properties of existing instruments. This is followed by an integrative framework and review of the antecedents and consequences proposed and empirically tested in previous studies. The following section identifies conceptual disagreements and ambiguities in current conceptualisation of CI, demonstrates the reliability and validity limitations in the available measures of the construct, and highlights the limitations of current empirical research on CI. This provides a rationale for developing a new definition and measurement of consumer-brand identification construct and outlines how this chapter lays the foundation for the conceptual framework proposed in the subsequent chapter. Figure 3.1 shows the structure of the chapter.

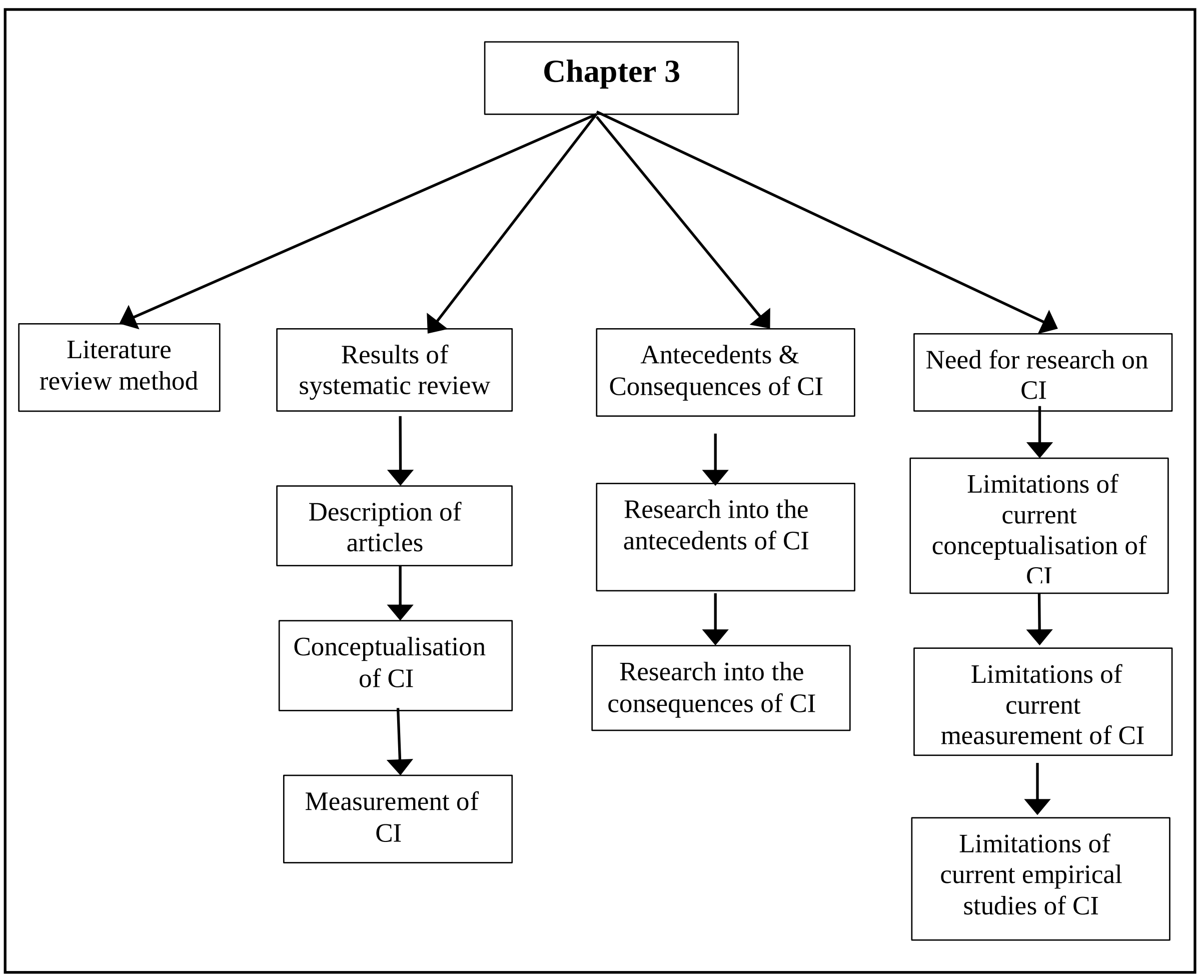


Figure 3.1 Structure of Chapter Three

3.2 Literature Review Method

The analysis and discussion of a particular research area within specific time duration can be undertaken through two main approaches: Firstly, the traditional or narrative review which is mainly based on a qualitative subjective analysis of the literature. Secondly, the systemic review which is primarily based on a quantitative objective analysis of the literature (Coombes & Nicholson, 2013; Petticrew & Roberts, 2006; Tranfield et al., 2003). Traditional narrative review is “the process of synthesising primary studies and exploring heterogeneity descriptively, rather than statistically” (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006: 19). While valuable, narrative approaches have been criticised in recent years for not being comprehensive or balanced in their selection of previous studies, often characterised by high subjectivity. The failure of traditional reviews to apply specific principles to the review process can lead to bias and unreliable summary of evidence and conclusions. Not surprisingly, the narrative approach has also been condemned for not being able to deal with the large amounts of research papers published yearly (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006; Tranfield et al., 2003). Due to these concerns, significant strides in attempting to improve the quality of the review process have been undertaken in the medical science and healthcare (Tranfield et al., 2003). Systematic literature review is widely used in medical research and recently has been applied in management (e.g. Crossan & Apaydin, 2010) and marketing (e.g. Coombes & Nicholson, 2013; Luca & Suggs, 2010). Unlike narrative review, a systematic literature review adopts a “replicable, scientific and transparent process” (Tranfield et al., 2003: 209) and adheres closely to a specific set of principles set in advance in an endeavour to minimise bias through comprehensive literature searches of all relevant published studies (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006).

Following Tranfield et al. (2003), a five step review process was adopted. First, six search terms: “consumer identification”, “company identification”, “brand identification”, “consumer-company identification”, and “consumer-brand identification” were listed. A condition was imposed that these search strings had to be included within the title, abstract or keywords for a journal article to be considered. Second, in December 2013, a search of six major electronic databases was undertaken: Business Source premier, Web of Science, SAGE Premier, Science Direct, JSTOR and Emerald Management Plus. These six databases were specifically selected because they were evaluated to be the most comprehensive in terms of journal coverage and complete for the time frame evaluated. The initial search was limited to peer-reviewed articles, written in English and published between January 1989 and December 2013[1]. The initial search revealed 1048 articles. Following the deletion of duplicates, 852 articles met the initial inclusion criteria. For example, if a paper was indexed in more than one database, only one version was included in the review. Table 3.1 shows an overview of the number of articles along with the duplicates in each database. In the third stage, a further condition was imposed that only articles with a focus on CI as a psychological linkage between consumers and focal marketing entity (e.g. brand, company, and employee of the company…etc.) will be retained for further analysis. This resulted in 702 articles being excluded. Figure 3.2 illustrates the decision tree for

[1] Although organisational identification was proposed by March and Simon (1958), Ashforth and Mael (1989) were the first to highlight the relevance of social identity theory to organisational settings (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Riketta, 2005).

excluding articles at each stage. Thereafter, the criteria adopted so far was imposed on the abstracts of the remaining papers (n= 150). Articles that defined brand identification as the extent to which consumers could identify and notice the brand were not included. In addition, articles that focused on employees' identification with their company or brand rather than consumers were excluded. In cases where a published article had examined identification at both the employee level and the consumer level (e.g. Homburg et al., 2009; Netemeyer et al., 2012), then such articles were included in the review. Additionally, articles that focused on members' identification with non-profit organisations such as educational and cultural institutions were included. The abstract review stage resulted in the exclusion of 43 articles.

	No of Articles (Duplicates)						
Search term	**Business Source Premier**	**Sage Premier**	**Web of Science**	**Science Direct**	**JSTOR**	**Emerald Plus**	**Total**
"Consumer identification"	43	1(1)	19(3)	7(4)	3(2)	5(3)	78(13)
"Brand identification"	237(3)	2	44(18)	17(13)	7(5)	11(7)	318(46)
"Consumer-brand identification"	13	1	7(7)	2(2)	1(1)	1(1)	25(11)
"Consumer-company identification"	22(20)	1(1)	15(11)	2(2)	4(3)	5(4)	49(41)
"Company identification"	474(34)	3(2)	79(33)	7(6)	7(4)	8(6)	578(85)
Total	789 (57)	8(4)	164(72)	35(27)	22(15)	30(21)	1048(196)

Table 3.1 Number of Articles Along with the Number of Duplicates in Each Database

Finally, the full text of the remaining 107 articles was reviewed and resulted in the exclusion of 18 more articles, resulting in 89 peer-reviewed articles that satisfied the predetermined inclusion criteria. At the fourth stage, for each retained article, key information was extracted: name of the author(s), publication year, journal, article type, study design, CI definition (where provided), CI measure, reliability and validity assessments, and variables and findings of hypothesised relationships (see Table 3.2).

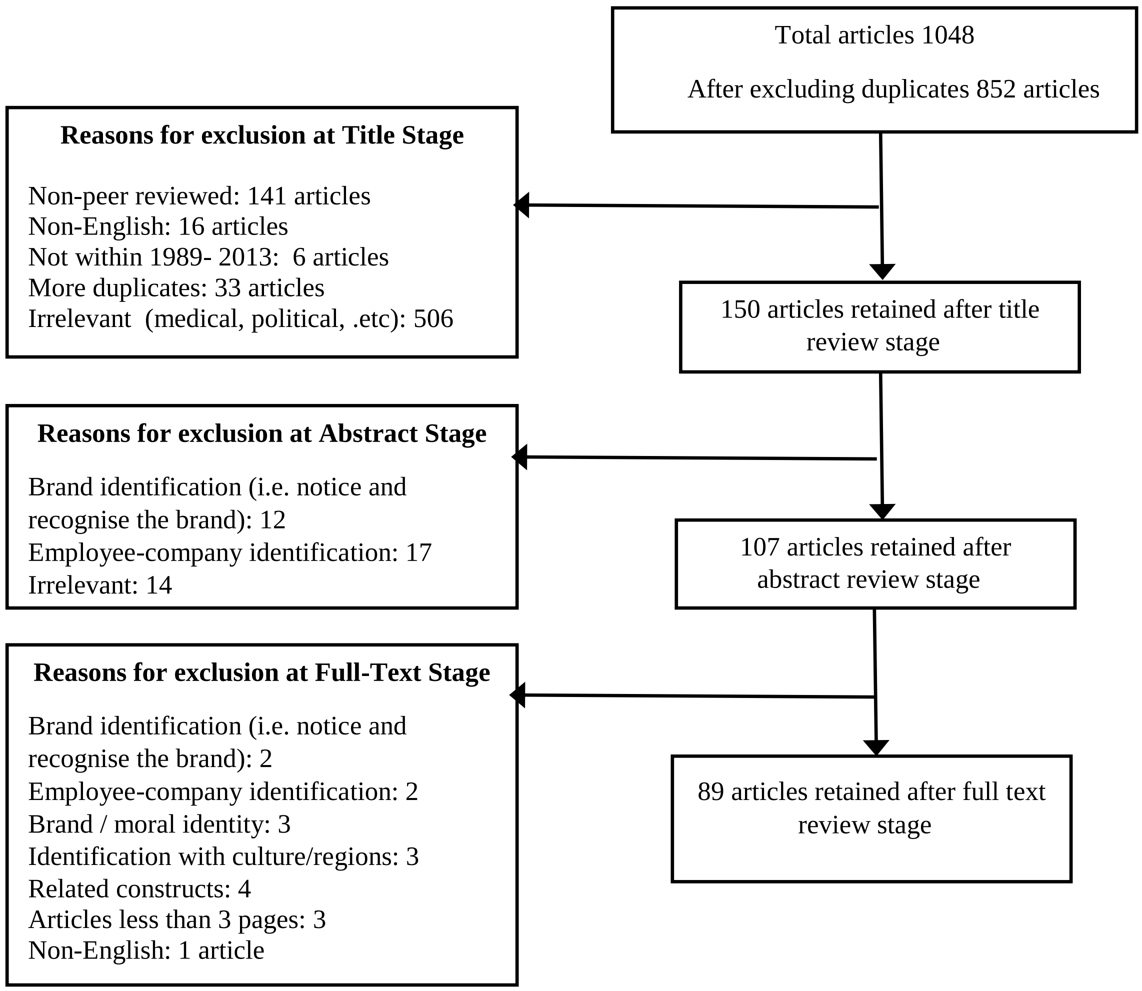


Figure 3.2 A Decision Tree Showing the Reasons for Excluding Articles at Each Stage

As a final step, the information extracted was summarised, integrated and analysed. The summary data was generated by tabulating findings with respect to four main issues: i) general description of articles that examined CI, ii) conceptualisation of CI, iii) measurement of CI, and iv) antecedents and consequences of CI. In the following sections of this chapter, the results of the systematic literature review are presented. At first, a brief overview of the reviewed studies is given. Next, the findings are summarised and presented, starting by discussing the conceptualisation of CI, followed by operationalisations used to measure CI in the marketing literature. Finally, an overview regarding the antecedents and consequences of CI in previous studies is given.

Author and Year	Author and Year
Journal	Journal Name
Article Type	C= Conceptual
	L= Literature Review
	E (TT) = Empirical (Theory testing)
	E (TB) = Empirical (Theory building)
	E(M) = Empirical (Mixed methods)
Study Design	S= Survey
	E= Experiment
	Q= Qualitative (e.g. Interviews , focus groups)
	M= Mixed methods
Conceptualisation- Where Provided	Y= Yes
	N = Not explicitly provided
Perspective of Conceptualisation	C= Purely Cognitive
	A= Purely affective
	M= Multidimensional
Level of Analysis to which the Construct Applies	B= Brand
	C= Company
	G= Group (e.g. community, Team)
	NPO= (e.g. educational or cultural institutions, causes)
	M= Multiple levels
Measurement	MD= Measure development
	CS= Combined scale
	OCS= Other constructs' scale
	M&A=Using Mael and Ashforth (1992) Scale
	B&B=Using Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) scale
Psychometric Properties	Reliability (Cronbach alpha, composite reliability)
	Validity (content, convergent, discriminant, predictive, nomological)
Variables and Findings of Hypothesised Relationships	Dependent variables
	Independent variables

Table 3.2 Structure (including Abbreviations) of Information Extracted

3.3 Results of Systematic Review

3.3.1 Description of Articles

The remaining 89 articles appeared in 54 journals, with 51 studies (57.3%) appearing in marketing journals with the remaining 38 papers appearing in other journals covering marketing issues[2]. The list of journals that published more than one article on CI is shown in Table 3.3, which shows that Journal of Business Research (8 articles) is the most popular outlet for CI papers.

Journal Name	Freq.	Journal Name	Freq.
Journal of Business Research	8	Journal of Product and Brand Management	2
European Journal of Marketing	6	Journal of Brand Management	2
Journal of Business Ethics	5	Journal of Consumer Marketing	2
Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	5	Journal of Public Relations Research	2
Journal of Marketing	4	Journal of Marketing Communications	2
Journal of Applied Psychology	3	Public Relations Review	2
Psychology and Marketing	3	African Journal of Business Management	2
		Tourism Management	2

Table 3.3 Journals with More than One Article on Consumer Identification

Following the seminal Ashforth and Mael (1989) paper, the next sixteen years (1989-2004) saw the publication of only two articles (see Table 3.4). However, the period between 2005 and 2009 witnessed the beginning of interest in CI concept with 19 published papers, a trend which continued during the period between 2010 and 2013 with 68 published papers. In summary, approximately 76 percent of all the articles were published in the last four years. The largest share of manuscripts was empirical papers, with a particular emphasis on theory testing (78.7%) and there were

[2] Journals are classified according to Association of Business Schools 2010 (ABS)

only 6 conceptual papers (6.7%). As highlighted elsewhere, given a quarter of a century has lapsed since Ashforth and Mael's (1989) seminal paper, it is surprising that there has been only one literature review. As Table 3.4 shows, 30 articles (33.7%) examined identification in the branding context and 39 articles (43.9%) examined identification in the context of consumer-company relationships. In fact, consumer-company identification (12 articles) sparked a fair amount of interest during 2005-2009 period compared to consumer-brand identification (3 articles). However, CI at the both the brand-level and the company-level (26 articles each) gained equal importance over the fourth period (2010-2013).

	1989-1999	2000-2004	2005-2009	2010-2013	Total	Percent
Number of articles published	-	2	19	68	89	100%
Article type						
Literature review	_	_	_	1	1	1.1%
Conceptual	_	1	2	3	6	6.7%
Empirical (Quantitative)	_	1	15	54	70	78.7%
Empirical (Qualitative)	_	_	1	3	4	4.5%
Empirical (Mixed methods)	-		1	7	8	9%
Construct Level (i.e. level to which the construct applies)						
Brand	--	1	3	26	30	33.7%
Company	--	1	12	26	39	43.9%
Group (e.g. brand community, sports teams)	--	--	2	6	8	9%
Non-profit organisations (e.g. cultural intuitions, educational institutions)	-	--	2	4	6	6.7%
Multiple	--	--	-	6	6	6.7%

Table 3.4 Breakdown of Articles by Article Type and Construct Level

3.3.2 Conceptualisation of Consumer Identification

The systematic review reveals that only 59 articles (66.3%) provided an explicit definition of CI, with the remainder failing to provide a specific definition (see

Table 3.5). With the exception of two works, two schools of thought on how authors define CI were observed: the unidimensional cognitive perspective and the multidimensional perspective. Forty-five articles (48 conceptualisations) defined CI entirely in cognitive terms and twelve articles (17 definitions) conceptualised CI as a multidimensional construct (see Table 3.6). The two exceptions to these broad generalisations were the works of Yeh and Choi (2011) and Pérez et al. (2013). Yeh and Choi (2011) conceptualised CI using both perspectives: They defined brand identification in cognitive terms and community identification in multidimensional terms. Pérez et al. (2013) defined CI purely in affective terms.

Among those adopting the unidimensional cognitive perspective, several authors drew upon Ashforth and Mael's (1989: 21) definition of organisational identification (OI) "the perception of oneness with or belongingness to some human aggregate" (e.g. Boenigk & Helmig, 2013; Stokburger-Sauer, 2011). Others followed Bergami and Bagozzi's (2000: 565) conceptualisation of cognitive OI "the perceived overlap between one's own self-concept and the identity of the organisation" (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005; Proksch et al., 2013). The multidimensional definitions of CI proposed in the remaining twelve articles differ with respect to the number and substance of dimensions assigned to CI. For instance, Casaló et al. (2010) identified only two dimensions (i.e. cognitive identification and affective identification), others suggested three (Choo et al., 2011; Lam et al., 2010), five (Wu et al., 2008) and six dimensions (Heere et al., 2011).

Author (Year)	Journal	Article Type	Study Design	Conceptualisation - where provided-	Perspective of conceptualisation	Level of analysis	Measurement
Kim et al. (2001)	Japanese Psychological Research	E(TT)	S	N	-	B	M&A (6)
Bhattacharya & Sen (2003)	Journal of Marketing	C	-	Y	C	C	-
Ahearne et al.(2005)	Journal of Applied Psychology	E(TT)	S	Y	C	C	B&B (1)
Brown et al. (2005)	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science (JAMS)	E(TT)	S	Y	C	C	B&B (2)
Cornwell & Coote (2005)	Journal of Business Research	E(TT)	S	N	-	NPO	M&A (6)
Cardador & Pratt (2006)	JAMS	C	-	N	-	C	-
Donavan et al. (2006)	Journal of Brand Management	E(TT)	S	N	-	G	B&B(2)
Einwiller et al. (2006)	JAMS	E(TT)	E	Y	C	C	MD (8)
Balmer & Liao (2007)	Corporate Communications: An international Journal	E (TB)	Q	N	-	NPO	-
Johnson (2008)	Journal of Interactive Marketing	E(TT)	S	Y	C	C	M&A(4)
Kuenzel & Halliday (2008)	Journal of Product & Brand Management	E(TT)	S	Y	C	B	Adapted M &A (3)
Wu & Tsai (2008)	International Journal of Commerce & Management	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	CS (11)
Wu et al. (2008)	Service Industries Journal	E(TT)	S	Y	M	C	CS (15)
Carlson et al.(2009)	International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management	E(TT)	S	Y	C	G	B&B (2)
Currás-Pérez (2009)	Corporate Reputation Review	E(TT)	S	Y	C	C	CS (5)
Currás-Pérez et al. (2009)	Journal of Business Ethics	E(TT)	S	Y	C	B	CS (5)
He & Mukherjee (2009)	Journal of Marketing Communications	C	-	Y	C	C	-
Homburg et al. (2009)	Journal of Marketing	E(M)	M	Y	M	C	Adapted M &A (5)
Hong & Yang (2009)	Journal of Public Relations Research	E(TT)	S	Y	C	B	M&A (6)
Keh & Xie (2009)	Industrial Marketing Management	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	M&A (4)
Marin et al. (2009)	Journal of Business Ethics	E(TT)	S	Y	C	C	M&A (5)
Balmer et al. (2010)	Journal of General Management	E(TB)	Q	N	-	NPO	-
Bergkvist &Larsen (2010)	Journal of Brand Management	E(TT)	S	Y	C	B	B&B (1)
Casaló et al. (2010)	International Journal of Information Management	E(TT)	S	Y	M	G	Algesheimer et al. (2005)
Dimitriadis & Papista (2010)	Marketing review	C	-	Y	C	B	-
Hildebrand et al. (2010)	Brazilian Administration Review	E(M)	M	Y	C	C	MD (8)
Hong et al. (2010)	Public Relations Review	E(TT)	S	N	-	B	M&A (6)
Kuenzel & Halliday (2010)	Journal of Targeting, Measurement & Analysis for Marketing	E(TT)	S	Y	C	B	M&A (3)
Lam et al. (2010)	Journal of Marketing	E(TT)	S	Y	M	B	Adapted Bagozzi & Dholakia (6)
Lichtenstein et al. (2010)	Journal of Retailing	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	B&B (1)

Liu et al. (2010)	Psychology & Marketing	E(TT)	E	Y	C	C	Einwiller et al. 2006 (8)
Nambisan & Baron (2010)	Organization Science	E(TT)	S	Y	C	M (C &G)	OCS (7)/B&B(1)
Pai Cheng et al. (2010)	International Journal of Electronic Business Management	E(TT)	S	Y	C	G	Algesheimer et al. (2005)
Stokburger-Sauer (2010)	Psychology & Marketing	E(TT)	E	Y	C	B	B&B (1)
Weber & Sparks (2010)	Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing	E(TT)	E	N	-	C	M&A
Aspara & Tikkanen (2011)	European Journal of Marketing	E(TT)	S	Y	C	C	CS (2)
Choo et al. (2011)	Journal of Hospitability Marketing & Management	E(TT)	S	Y	M	B	Bagozzi & Dholakia (6)
Dimitriadis & Papista (2011)	Journal of Customer Behaviour	C	-	Y	C	B	-
He & Li (2011)	Journal of Business Ethics	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	M& A (5)
Heere et al. (2011)	Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice	E(TT)	S	Y	M	M(NPO/G)	CS (18)
Hildebrand et al. (2011)	European Journal of Marketing	C	-	Y	C	C	-
Hong & Yang (2011)	Journal of Public Relations Research	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	M&A (6)
Jones & Kim (2011)	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	M&A(3)/OCS(4)
Karaosmanoğlu et al. (2011)	European Journal of Marketing	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	Adapted M &A (6)
Lii (2011)	African Journal of Business Management	E(TT)	E	Y	C	B	M&A (3)
Nam et al. (2011)	Annals of Tourism Research	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	M&A (3)
Press & Arnould (2011)	Journal of Consumer Research	E(TB)	Q	N	-	C	-
Qu & Lee (2011)	Tourism Management	E(TT)	S	Y	C	G	OCS (4)
Stokburger-Sauer (2011)	Tourism Management	E(M)	M	Y	C	B	M &A (4)
Tuzun & Devrani (2011)	African Journal of Business Management	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	M &A (5)
Yeh & Choi (2011)	Journal of Marketing Communications	E(TT)	S	Y	C & M	M (B&G)	Algesheimer et al. (3/5)
Fombelle et al. (2012)	JAMS	E(TT)	S	Y	C	NPO	M& A (5)
He et al. (2012)	Journal of Business Research	E(TT)	S	Y	C	B	M &A (5)
Lam (2012)	AMS Review	L	-	N	-	B	-
Lam et al. (2012)	Journal of International Business Studies	E(TT)	S	Y	M	B	Adapted Bagozzi & Dholakia (6)
Lee et al. (2012)	Journal of Business Research	E(TT)	S	Y	C	C	M &A (5)
Lii & Lee (2012)	Journal of Business Ethics	E(TT)	E	Y	C	B	M &A (3)
Lisjak et al. (2012)	Personality & Social Psychology	E(TT)	E	N	-	B	OCS (7)
Netemeyer et al. (2012)	Journal of Applied Psychology	E(TT)	S	Y	C	C	CS (3)
Papista & Dimitriadis (2012)	Qualitative Market Research :An international Journal	E(TB)	Q	Y	C	B	-
Schuh et al. (2012)	European Journal of Work & Organizational Psychology	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	M&A (3)
Stokburger-Sauer et al. (2012)	International Journal of Research in Marketing	E(M)	M	Y	C	B	MD (5)

Tsai & Pai (2012)	Information & Management	E(TT)	S	N	-	G	Algesheimer et al. (3)
Vanhamme et al. (2012)	Journal of Business Ethics	E(TT)	E	Y	C	NPO	OCS(10)
Xu et al. (2012)	International Journal of Networking & Virtual Organizations	E(TT)	E	Y	C	C	
Zhou et al. (2012)	Journal of Business Research	E(TT)	S	Y	C	M (B&G)	M& A (5)
Bagozzi et al. (2012)	Journal of Applied Psychology	E(TT)	S	Y	M	M (B,C & G)	Bagozzi & Dholakia (6)
Albert & Merunka (2013)	Journal of Consumer Marketing	E(TT)	S	N	-	B	OCS
Albert et al. (2013)	Journal of Business Research	E(TT)	S	Y	C	B	OCS
Ashraf & Merunka (2013)	Marketing Intelligence &Planning	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	Einwiller et al. (3)
Becerra & Badrinarayanan (2013)	Journal of Product & Brand Management	E(TT)	S	Y	M	B	M&A (6)
Bennett et al. (2013)	Journal of Consumer Psychology	E(TT)	E	N	-	C	B&B (1)
Boenigk & Helmig (2013)	Journal of Service Research	E(TT)	S	Y	C	NPO	M &A (6)
Einwiller & Johar (2013)	Public Relations Review	E(TT)	E	Y	C	C	Einwiller et al. (5)
Ekinci et al. (2013)	Journal of Business Research	E(TT)	S	N	-	B	M&A (4)
Homburg et al. (2013)	Journal of Marketing	E(M)	M	Y	C	C	Adapted M &A (5)
Johnson et al. (2013)	Journal of Consumer Marketing	E(TT)	S	Y	C	G	Adapted M &A (5)
Jones & Runyan (2013)	International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	M&A(3)/OCS(4)
Lam et al. (2013)	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	E(TT)	S	Y	M	B	Adapted Bagozzi & Dholakia (6)
Marin & de Maya (2013)	European Journal of Marketing	E(TT)	S	N	-	C	M&A (5)
Marzocchi et al. (2013)	European Journal of Marketing	E(TT)	S	Y	M	M (B&G)	Bagozzi & Dholakia (6)
Pérez et al. (2013)	European Journal of Marketing	E(TT)	S	Y	A	C	CS(3)
Proksch et al. (2013)	Journal of Consumer Behaviour	E(TT)	E	Y	C	B	B&B (1)
Shirazi et al. (2013)	Iranian Journal of Management Studies	E(TT)	S	N	-	B	M&A (5)
So et al. (2013)	International Journal of Hospitality Management	E(TT)	S	Y	C	C	M&A (5)
Tsai & Pai (2013)	International Journal of Human-Computer Studies	E(M)	M	Y	C	G	Algesheimer et al. (4)
Tuškej et al. (2013)	Journal of Business Research	E(TT)	S	Y	C	B	Podnar OI (2004) (3)
Valette-Florence & De Barnier (2013)	Journal of Business Research	E(M)	M	N	-	B	Salerno (2001) (1)
Yi et al. (2013)	Psychology & Marketing	E(M)	M	Y	M	C	Bagozzi & Dholakia (6)

Note: Abbreviations are provided in Table 3.2
Numbers in parentheses reflect the number of items in each scale

Table 3.5 Summary of Consumer Identification Articles

	1989-1999	2000-2004	2005-2009	2010-2013	Total*	Percent
Conceptualisation						
Unidimensional cognitive perspective	-	1	11	36	48	72.7 %
Affective perspective	-	-	-	1	1	1.5%
Multidimensional perspective	-	-	2	15	17	25.8%

*6 articles examined the identification construct at more than one level. Thus, we have 66 conceptualisations in 59 articles.

Table 3.6 Breakdown of Articles by Conceptualisation

It is acknowledged, however, that Wu et al.'s (2008) five dimensions (company loyalty, company promotion, customer gathering, recovery from negative information and more requests) target the outcomes of identification rather than the identification construct itself. An illustrative figure may assist in clarifying the different conceptualisations identified in the marketing literature. As shown in Figure 3.3, CI is represented as a cognitive construct per se (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). As the definition of CI is broadened, the affective component is included together with the cognitive component (Homburg et al., 2009). The broadest definition of CI also includes the final circle, evaluative identification (Lam et al., 2010).

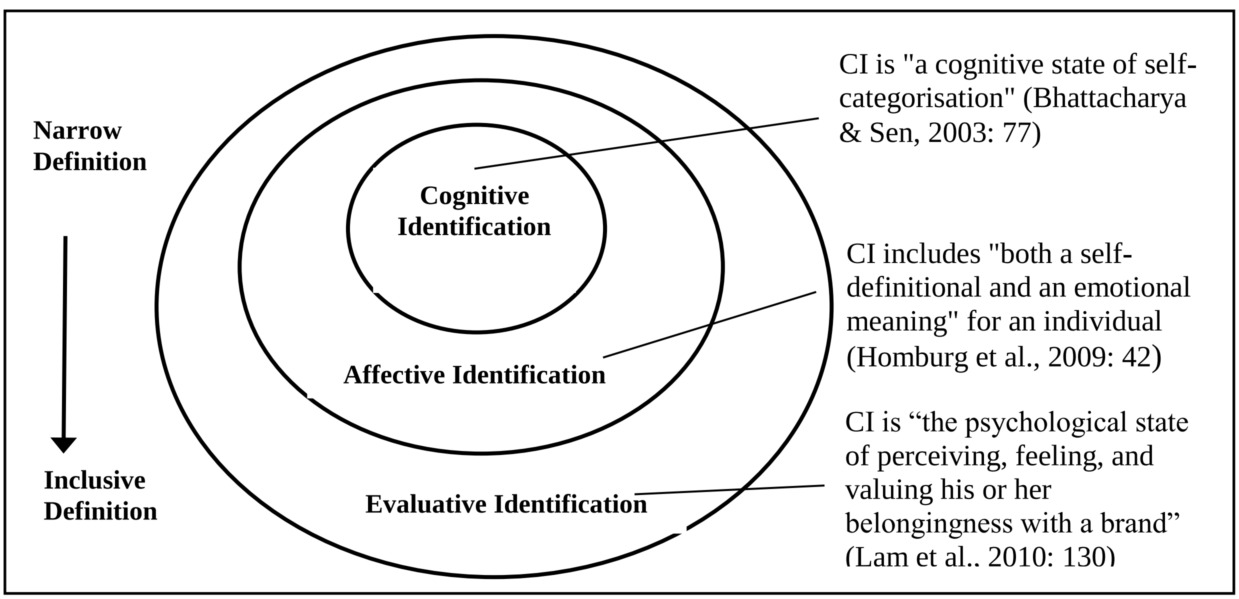


Figure 3.3 Conceptualisation of Consumer Identification from Different Perspectives

It has been observed that the cognitive perspective shows a noticeable increase to 11 definitions for the period between 2005 and 2009 and a further marked increase to 36 definitions for the period between 2010 and 2013 (see Table 3.6). The multidimensional perspective appears to have gained attraction in the marketing literature over the last four years. The acceptance of multidimensional conceptualisation of identification has been reported by Lam et al. (2010). As Figure 3.4 shows, in the 45 articles that defined identification in cognitive terms, there was no difference between the brand level and the company level. In contrast, from the multidimensional perspective a more even spread in the level of analysis can be observed.

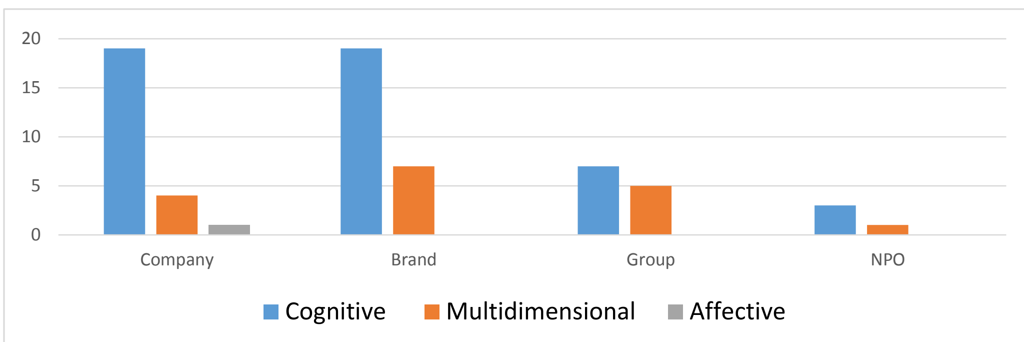


Figure 3.4 Distribution of Articles by the Conceptualisation Perspective and the Level to Which the Construct Applies

Another important observation is the apparent lack of consistency in the language used leading to confusion and ambiguity. Some scholars use CI, value congruence, brand-personality congruence and self-brand connection interchangeably. This conceptual ambiguity was often, although not always, the case when identification is defined in cognitive terms. For instance, Albert et al. (2013) and Albert and Merunka (2013) defined brand identification in terms of value congruency, brand-personality congruency and self-brand connection. Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010: 506) argued that “brand identification is also known as self-image congruence and self-connection”. Moreover, Pérez et al. (2013) defined identification in terms of affective commitment and value congruence. It is worth noting that prior research supported the influence of value congruence (Tuškej et al., 2013), brand personality congruence (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010; Lam et al., 2012) on CI. Thus, these constructs are antecedents rather than integral constituent of CI.

3.3.3 Measurement of Consumer Identification

The systematic review identified 19 instruments for measuring CI that has been used in empirical studies. The measurements can be grouped into four main categories: organisational identification scales (10.5 %), measure development scales (21.1%), combined scales (47.3%) and other constructs’ scales (21.1%). The majority of instruments are unidimensional (73.7%) with the remainder are multidimensional (26.3%). The reliability and validity were assessed following Netemeyer et al. (2003) and Trochim and Donnelly (2006) (see Table 3.7).

Construct validity refers to the extent to which the operationalisation accurately reflects the construct of interest. Construct validity can be viewed as an umbrella term that comprises different facets of validity and may be separated into translation, criterion-related and nomological validity. Translation validity encompasses both face and content validity (Netemeyer et al., 2003; Trochim & Donnelly, 2006), combined into one single category as they are often confused or used interchangeably (Hardesty & Bearden, 2004). Whereas criterion-related validity includes the empirical assessment of predictive, convergent and discriminant validity, nomological validity focuses on a focal construct's relation to other constructs. Finally, reliability includes inter-rater reliability, test-retest reliability and internal consistency reliability (i.e. Cronbach alpha). All forms of reliability assessment were also combined into one single category.

Construct Validity
Translation validity: The extent to which a construct is truly translated into an operationalisation.
▪ Face Validity: An evaluation that the instrument's items on its face carry or translate the meaning of the construct. Examples for evaluating face validity include a review by a selected sample of experts.
▪ Content Validity: The degree to which the generated items of an instrument reflects the theoretical content domain of the construct. Procedures for assessing content validity include expert judging where judges are exposed to individual items and asked to assess the extent to which the items are representative of the construct (e.g. Zaichkowsky, 1985). If the construct is multidimensional, the judges are asked to assign the items to one of the construct's dimensions definitions (Hardesty & Bearden, 2004).
Criterion-related validity: An empirical assessment of the performance of an instrument against some criterion.
▪ Predictive validity: The ability of an instrument to effectively predict some criterion measure. A high correlation demonstrates evidence of predictive validity where the instrument serves as an exogenous (independent) variable.
▪ Convergent validity: The degree to which the operationalisation correlates highly or converges with other operationalisations that supposedly measure the same construct. High correlations between operationlisations measuring the same construct demonstrate evidence of convergent validity.
▪ Discriminant validity: The extent to which the instrument differs or diverges from other instruments that purportedly measure different constructs. Low correlations between measures of dissimilar constructs would be an evidence of discriminant validity.
Nomological Validity: The degree to which a measure operates within a set of different theoretical constructs and measures of those constructs i.e. the degree to which a construct is related differently to antecedents and outcomes.
Reliability: The consistency or repeatability of an instrument. Examples include inter-rater reliability, internal consistency reliability (i.e. Cronbach alpha), split-half reliability, test-retest reliability.

Table 3.7 Types of Validity and Reliability Used to Assess Existing Instruments

The review showed that most instruments used for measuring CI provided limited evidence of reliability or validity (see Table 3.8). For instance, assessing content validity using any discernible process was undertaken by only two instruments (13.3%)[3]. In other words, how the authors assessed the degree to which the instrument's indicators truly reflect the theoretical domain of the focal construct was not reported. Hardesty and Bearden (2004) review, regarding the prevalence use of expert judging as a tool to evaluate content validity in empirical marketing studies, found that only 19.5% of the articles report the use of expert judging. The number of works that considered the extent to which their instrument converges with existing measures of identification is quite small (13.3%). For instance, Einwiller et al. (2006) reported that their proposed scale converges with Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) scale. The majority of instruments (66.7%) focused exclusively on assessing convergent validity among indicators measuring the same construct. Twelve works exhibited evidence of discriminant validity. In most cases, however, authors tested for discriminant validity among constructs in the proposed framework (a notable exception is Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). Although valuable, distinguishing empirically between CI and other conceptually related constructs, such as self-brand connection, value congruence, or brand attachment is still lacking. The absence of both convergent and discriminant evidence makes it difficult to conclude whether the instrument measured the focal construct or similar related constructs (conceptual and empirical distinction between CI and other constructs are presented in Chapters 4 and 7). Other forms of construct validity were evaluated more frequently. More than two third of the

[3] The percentages are calculated with respect to CI measurements (n=15). The four instruments of related constructs are not considered.

instruments exhibited evidence of nomological validity (n=11). The majority (n=14) demonstrated evidence of predictive validity. An equal proportion of instruments (n=14) exhibited evidence of reliability.

Amongst the 19 instruments identified in this review (see Table 3.8), the most frequently cited works in the marketing literature are Mael and Ashforth (M&A) (1992) six-item OI scale, followed by Bergami and Bagozzi (B&B) (2000) two-item cognitive OI scale. It has been observed that marketing scholars often utilise portions of these two scales to measure CI without justification. This is problematic, given that Mael and Ashforth (1992) and Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) scales were developed in employee contexts specifically to measure OI. Following Bhattacharya et al. (1995) and Bhattacharya and Sen (2003), the majority of studies in the marketing literature have adapted M&A (1992) and B&B (2000) instruments to measure CI. A key shortcoming with this approach is the assumption that these measures can be applied in a customer context just by replacing the word organisation by the word brand. Marketing researchers appear to disregard that identification in organisational settings may differ from a branding context given that unlike employees, consumers are not formal members of the company (Lam et al., 2010). Additionally, in contrast to the central role of work organisations in individuals' social identities, companies and brands do not naturally constitute an integral part of consumers' lives (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Notwithstanding the widespread application of OI scales in the marketing field, it has been noted in the organisational identity literature that these two OI scales suffer from construct validity, unidimentionality and the failure to capture the social identity theory in its entirety (e.g. Edwards, 2005; Johnson et al., 2012).

Four scales developed to measure CI were identified. These instruments were developed to measure brand community identification (Algesheimer et al., 2005), consumer-company identification (Einwiller et al., 2006; Hildebrand et al., 2010), and consumer-brand identification (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). The three instruments measuring consumer-company or brand- identification exhibited limited evidence of content validity assessment. Further, they deviated from the theoretical underpinnings of CI and excluded the affective and evaluative dimensions of identification. Specifically, Einwiller et al. (2006) suggested that further research should examine the affective dimension of identification. Thus, the operationalisation of these instruments raises concerns about their translation validity. That is, whether the theoretical domain of identification is adequately tapped by only the cognitive dimension of identification is questionable. Although Algesheimer et al. (2005) acknowledged that CI includes both cognitive and affective dimensions, the authors developed a unidimensional 5-item scale with exclusively cognitive items. More importantly, these scales were not extensively tested by other researchers to further asses their reliability and validity. This also applies to the combined scales. Thus, the discussion in subsequent sections primarily focuses on the two commonly used scales in the marketing literature.

Authors	Key Citations	Content validity	Predictive validity	Convergent validity	Comparative instrument	Discriminant validity	Comparative Instrument	Nomological validity	Reliability
Organisational Identification (OI) Scale									
M&A 6-item scale 1992)	Kim et al. (2001); Cornwell & Coote (2005); Hong & Yang (2009); Hong et al. (2010); Boenigk & Helmig (2013); Becerra & Badrinarayanan (2013); Weber & Sparks (2010); Hong & Yang (2011)		√			√	Antecedents & consequences	√	√
M&A 5-item scale	Marin et al. (2009); He & Li (2011); Tuzun & Devrani (2011); He et al. (2012); Lee et al. (2012); Zhou et al. (2012); Marin & de Maya (2013); So et al. (2013); Fombelle et al. (2012); Shirazi et al. (2013)								
M&A 4-item scale	Keh & Xie (2009); Stokburger-Sauer (2011); Ekinci et al. (2013); Johnson (2008)								
M&A 3-item scale	Kuenzel & Halliday (2010); Jones & Kim (2011); Lii & Lee (2012); Jones & Runyan (2013); Lii (2011); Nam et al. (2011); Schuh et al. (2012)								
Adapted from M &A (1992) scale	Homburg et al. (2009); Homburg et al. (2013); Karaosmanoglu et al. (2011); Johnson et al. (2013); Kuenzel & Halliday (2008)								
B&B 2-item scale (2000)	Brown et al. (2005); Carlson et al.(2009); Donavan et al. (2006)		√	√	M&A (1992) scale	√	Dimensions of social identity	√	√
B&B one-item scale	Ahearne et al.(2005); Bergkvist & Larsen (2010); Lichtenstein et al. (2010); Stokburger-Sauer (2010); Bennett et al. (2013); Proksch et al. (2013); Nambisan & Baron (2010)								
Measure Development (MD)									
Algesheimer et al. (2005)	Pai Cheng et al.(2010); Tsai & Pai (2012); Yeh & Choi (2011); Tsai & Pai (2013); Casaló et al. (2010)	√	√	√	Among items of the same construct	√	All constructs in the proposed model	√	√
Einwiller et al. (2006)	Liu et al. (2010); Ashraf & Merunka (2013); Einwiller & Johar (2013)		√	√	B&B (2000) scale				√
Hildebrand et al. (2010)			√	√	Among items of the same dimension	√	Among dimensions of the proposed measure	√	√
Stokburger-Sauer et al. (2012)			√	√	Among items of the same construct	√	Antecedents, Consequences & Brand commitment	√	√

Combined Scales (CS)									
Bagozzi & Dholakia (2006)*	Choo et al. (2011); Bagozzi et al. (2012); Marzocchi et al. (2013);Yi et al. (2013); Lam et al. (2010); Lam et al. (2012)	√	√			√	All constructs in the proposed model		√
Currás-Pérez et al. (2009)			√	√	Among items of the same construct	√	All constructs in the proposed model	√	√
Netemeyer et al. (2012)			√			√	Antecedents	√	√
Aspara & Tikkanen (2011)			√	√	Among items of the same construct				√
Wu & Tsai (2008)			√	√	Among items of the same construct	√	Antecedents & consequences	√	
Wu et al. (2008)				√	Among items of the same construct	√	All constructs in the proposed model	√	√
Currás-Pérez (2009)			√	√	Among items of the same construct	√	All constructs in the proposed model	√	√
Heere et al. (2011)			√	√	Among items of the same dimension	√	Among dimensions of the proposed scale.		√
Pérez et al. (2013)			√	√	Among items of the same dimension	√	All constructs in the proposed model	√	√
Other constructs' Scales (OCS)									
Perceived attractiveness	Vanhamme et al. (2012)								
Self-brand connection	Jones & Kim (2011); Albert & Merunka (2013); Albert et al. (2013); Jones & Runyan (2013); Lisjak et al. (2012)								
Sense of community	Qu & Lee (2011)								
Perceived homophily	Nambisan & Baron (2010)								

* Bagozzi & Dholakia (2006) scale is called social identity

Table 3.8 Assessment of Reliability and Validity of Consumer Identification Scales

3.4 Research into the Antecedents of Consumer Identification

The systematic review findings on the antecedents of CI cannot escape diversity. Based on the synthesis of the literature, Table 3.9 identifies these determinants and classifies them into three main categories attributed to the consumers' key self-definitional needs: variables related to self-consistency needs, variables related to self-enhancement needs, and variables related to self-distinctiveness needs. Variables that are not related to key self-definitional needs are grouped under "other antecedents" category. SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) has laid the theoretical foundation for variables that may influence identification with social categories such as self-esteem, similarities and dissimilarities.

In the marketing literature, consistent with SIT and OI research (e.g. Dutton et al., 1994), Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) in their seminal article proposed that three basic principles of self-definition- self-consistency, self-distinctiveness and self-enhancement needs- account for the attractiveness of the company's identity and in turn help to strengthen CI. Specifically, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) conceptual framework suggested that the attractiveness of the company's identity, which consequently induces consumers' identification with the company, depends on the degree to which consumers perceive the company's identity as similar to their own (i.e. identity similarity), distinctive on aspects that they value (i.e. identity distinctiveness) and prestigious (i.e. identity prestige). This is because (1) identity similarity satisfies the consumers' need for self-consistency and helps them to maintain a stable and consistent sense of the self, (2) identity distinctiveness enables consumers to achieve their need for distinctiveness by distinguishing themselves from others, and (3) identity prestige helps consumers to view themselves in the reflected glory of the company and perceive themselves in a positive light (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Lam et al., 2012). Therefore, the three basic self-definitional needs were used to organise and integrate the existing literature on CI. Figure 3.5 shows an integrative framework of the antecedents of CI in previous studies. Prior research into the antecedents of CI classified by consumers' self-definitional needs is discussed in the next sections.

3.4.1 Self-Consistency Needs

In an attempt to understand ourselves and our social world, individuals are motivated to maintain a sense of continuity or consistency in their own self-concept over time and across situations (Dutton et al., 1994; Kunda, 1999). Self-continuity (i.e. consistency of self-concept) is "the motive to behave consistently with our views of ourselves" (Banister & Hogg, 2004: 852). A stable self-concept provides individuals with a powerful sense of psychological coherence and ability to predict and control their worlds (North & Swann, 2009). Accordingly, perceiving a relatively consistent sense of self can help individuals' increase their psychological well-being (Iyer & Jetten, 2011; Swann, 1990). On the other hand, lack of continuity can lead to psychological anxiety and mental breakdown (Sedikides et al., 2008).

In an attempt to construct consistent social identities, the need for self-consistency is a key factor that concerns peoples' perceptions of the attractiveness of company's identity which in turn influences their level of identification (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). The marketing literature echoes the notion that consumers' choice of products and brands is driven by their self-consistency need and that satisfying this need is emotionally pleasing (Escalas & Bettman, 2003; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). Marketing scholars postulate that self-consistency need is increasingly met through consumers' perceptions of congruence or similarity between their own self-concept and that of relevant brands (Lam et al., 2012; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). For example, "the Harley Davidson brand, with its free-spirited and rebellious image, is likely to appeal more to those individuals whose self-concept contains these traits" (Swaminathan et al., 2007: 248). This matching process between consumers' self-concept and symbolic attributes of a given brand is known as self-congruity. "Self-image congruence", "self-congruence," "self-congruity", and "image congruence" are used synonymously in the marketing literature (Kressmann et al., 2006).

The influence of self-congruity, driven by self-consistency needs, has been proposed and addressed in numerous studies (see Table 3.9). Diverse aspects of self-congruity and its impact on CI have been examined: congruity with actual brand personality (Lam et al., 2013; Stokburger-Sauer, 2010), congruity with ideal brand personality (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010), identity in general (Hildebrand et al., 2010), CSR activities (Lam et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2012), values (Tuškej et al., 2013), the company's employees (Marin & de Maya, 2013; Netemeyer et al., 2012), and other customers (Karaosmanoğlu et al., 2011). For instance, Kim et al. (2001) found that self-expressive value has a significant effect on brand attractiveness which in turn affects brand identification. In a large multinational study involving 15 countries, Lam et al. (2012) showed that a negative relationship between self-brand incongruity and CI exists. The results of Kuenzel and Halliday (2010) are consistent with the previous findings where the researchers reported that brand personality congruence has a significant effect on CI. Similarly, Tuškej et al. (2013) found a positive influence of value congruity on CI. Lam et al. (2013) also reported that similarity in characteristics between consumers and the brand in terms of innovativeness have a positive influence on identification. Accordingly, variables related to the self-consistency need have been found to strengthen the consumer's identification and were widely investigated.

3.4.2 Self-Distinctiveness Needs

In the identity literature, it has been acknowledged that people strive to be different and distinct from others in interpersonal contexts (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Specifically, the need for uniqueness theory (Snyder & Fromin, 1977) suggests that all people desire uniqueness to some extent to achieve a positive self-view that results in greater self-esteem. This assumption can be traced to optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991) which proposes that individuals attempt to identify with groups that enable them to fulfil their assimilation and differentiation needs simultaneously. In a similar vein, SIT argues that people seek to maintain and enhance their social identity by associating with groups that are perceived to be positively different or distinctive in dimensions they value compared to relevant out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Distinctiveness relates to how the organisation is different from other organisations thus providing a more salient definition to its members (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). More specifically, drawing on SIT, organisational scholars stated that the distinctiveness of an organisation's identity relative to comparable organisations is a determinant of identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994). Similarly, in the consumption context, brands and companies may serve as recognisable symbols of uniqueness (Belk, 1988; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Tian et al., 2001). Thus, it is not surprising that customers' need for distinctiveness can be partially met through the selection of brands with distinctive identities, which set them apart from competitors, for the purpose of developing and enhancing one's social identity (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Tian et al., 2001). In fact, the need for distinctiveness as a desire for individual differentiation from others is closely related to self-enhancement need (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010).

Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) proposed that consumers who believe that their company is distinctive relative to other companies (in terms of values, culture, strategy, identity, or practices) are more likely to be attracted to this company and consequently strengthen consumers' identification. In the marketing literature, numerous studies argued that CSR-based identity represents a distinctive aspect that encourage consumers not only to like, respect and admire the company but also to identify with it. Several studies revealed that CSR has a positive influence on CI (Currás-Pérez, 2009; He & Li, 2011; Homburg et al., 2013; Hong et al., 2010; Lii & Lee, 2012; Marin et al., 2009; Pérez et al., 2013). In support of this view, Du et al. (2007) found that consumers of a CSR brand are more likely to identify with that brand compared to consumers of non-CSR brands. In contrast, the empirical support for the impact of distinctiveness on CI has been mixed. Whereas Kim et al. (2001) found a positive relationship between distinctiveness of a brand personality and brand identification through brand attractiveness, a direct relationship between brand distinctiveness (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012), company distinctiveness (Hildebrand et al., 2010), team distinctiveness (Carlson et al., 2009) and identification was found.

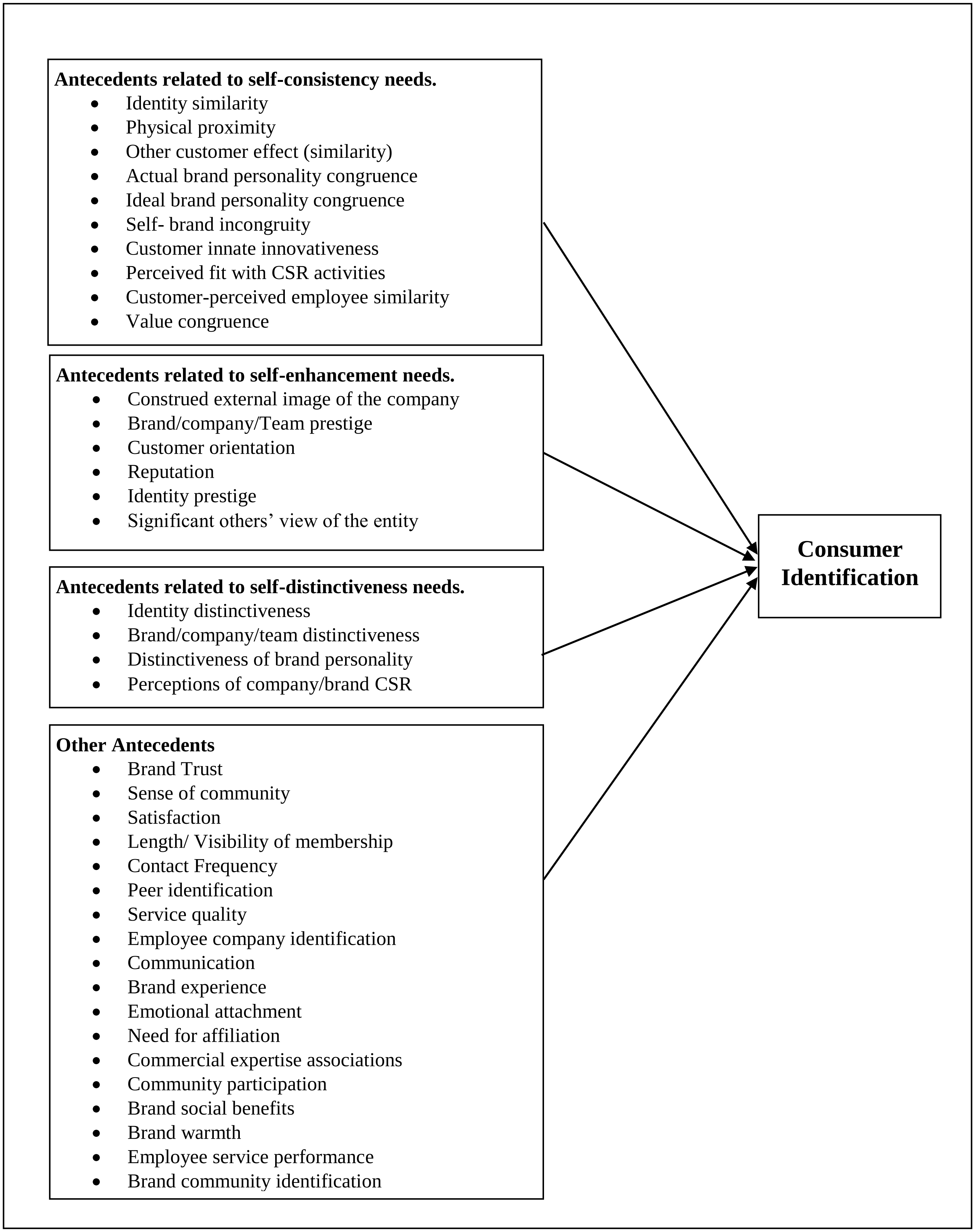


Figure 3.5 Antecedents of Consumer Identification Classified with Respect to Self-Definitional Needs

On the other hand, Wu and Tsai (2008) reported that identity distinctiveness does not affect the extent to which consumers identify with the company. Interestingly, Kim et al. (2001) found that self-expressive value driven by self-continuity needs has a stronger impact on brand identification than brand distinctiveness.

3.4.3 Self-Enhancement Needs

The third need that can help to understand CI is the self-enhancement need. Self-enhancement represents the desire to view oneself positively relative to others (Hogg et al., 1995). While consumers are motivated to identify with companies or brands to satisfy their self-continuity and self-distinctiveness needs, fulfilling their self-enhancement needs is one of the critical determinants of identification. One of the main tenets of SIT is the self-esteem hypothesis (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), postulating that individuals strive to enhance their self-esteem which is based on the degree that one's social groups are valued and perceived in a positive way by relevant others. In a sense, individuals' need for self-enhancement can be partially fulfilled by identifying with organisations that have prestigious identities (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994). Identity prestige refers to consumers' perceptions that other people, whose opinion they value, believe that the company is well regarded (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). In other words, people identify with prestigious companies to maintain a positive social identity and enhance their self-esteem by viewing themselves in the company's reflected glory (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). In consumer behaviour literature, the notion of the extended self (e.g. Belk, 1988; Kleine & Baker, 2004) posits that people tend to incorporate material possessions, products, and brands into their self-concept driven by their self-enhancement needs (Escalas & Bettman, 2003).

Moreover, it is well acknowledged that consumers buy products and brands to enhance their self-esteem (Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967).

The systematic review revealed that prior research supported the positive influence of brand prestige (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008), identity prestige (Wu & Tsai, 2008), team prestige (Carlson et al., 2009), brand reputation (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010), corporate reputation (Hong & Yang, 2009; Keh & Xie, 2009) on CI in a for-profit consumer context. Consistent with the previous findings, Bhattacharya et al. (1995) and Cornwell and Coote (2005) reported the impact of organisational prestige on CI in a non-profit context such as museums and non-profit organisations. Moreover, Donavan et al. (2006) in their study of college sports fans found that a significant other's view of the entity significantly influences brand identification. In contrast to these findings, the Ahearne et al. (2005) study of high-prescribing physicians found that the company's construed external image, in the presence of perceived salesperson characteristics and perceived organisational characteristics, does not have a significant effect on consumer-company identification. Instead, it was found that the company's construed image has a direct impact on the consequences associated with CI. Similarly, it was found that brand prestige (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012) and reputation (Hong & Yang, 2011) does not have a significant influence on CI. Although numerous studies have focused on examining the influence of variables related to the target entity image, as shown in Table 3.9 little empirical research has focused on other determinants that may fulfil consumers' self-enhancement needs, specifically in the service context, such as the company's employees and how the company treats its consumers.

First, in a service setting, due to the intangible nature of services and high level of customer interaction and integration, the employees play a critical role in terms of communicating the company' identity (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). In particular, the frontline employees exhibit the character and values of the company (Ahearne et al., 2005). As boundary spanners, salespeople's conduct and behaviour express the company's attitude toward customers (Schwepker, 2003) and are used by customers to judge the service company (Hennig-Thurau, 2004). Research suggests that promoting customer-oriented behaviour among employees plays a crucial role in developing long-term relationships with customers (Schwepker, 2003) and ultimately results in the long-term success for the company (Donavan et al., 2004; Hennig-Thurau, 2004). Specifically, meeting the customers' needs and enhancing their satisfaction provide them with feelings of being valued and respected by the company and thus enhances their self-esteem. Despite the importance of the employees' behaviour in building enduring and committed relationships with customers, to the author's best knowledge, little empirical research has examined the impact of employees on consumer identification. For instance, Ahearne et al. (2005) found that a more favourable perception of salesperson characteristics led to higher levels of identification. Homburg et al. (2009) reported the positive influence of customer orientation (i.e. employees' favourable behaviours toward satisfying customers' needs) on the extent to which consumers' identify with a company. Although these studies provide useful insights toward the research into employees' behaviour, more research is required to address the impact of customer-oriented behaviour on consumer identification. Limitations of these two studies are discussed in more details in Section 3.6.3.

Second, in addition to the employees' behaviour, relationship marketing tactics hold the potential to contribute to important relationship outcomes valued by companies (De Wulf et al., 2001; Odekerken-Schro¨der et al., 2003). Indeed, companies can adopt a variety of relationship tactics including preferential treatment, personalisation, and communication to show their dedication to customers' interests (Odekerken-Schro¨der et al., 2003). Given that prior research has supported the positive influence of communication on consumer-brand identification (e.g. Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008), it would be redundant to examine its impact on identification. Moreover, personalisation defined as the extent to which consumers perceive that the employee interacts in a warm and personal way (Odekerken-Schro¨der et al., 2003), was not examined in this research to ensure a conceptual distinction between perceived customer orientation and personalisation. Perhaps, preferential treatment is one of the popular types of relationship tactics employed by companies (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002). Specifically, preferential treatment plays a predominant role in building enduring relationships with customers (Lacey et al., 2007). In a highly competitive environment where competitors are offering comparable products and price promotions, companies are encouraged to provide selective customers preferential treatment to gain competitive advantage (De Wulf & Odekerken-Schro¨der, 2003; Lacey et al., 2007). Specifically, consumers are likely to perceive such distinctive treatment as being special and important, and thus enhance their self-esteem. Despite the widespread practice of preferential treatment and its importance, it has received limited attention in the academic literature (Lacey et al., 2007). Specifically, to the author's knowledge, this research is the first to examine the influence of both types of preferential treatment, namely economic preferential treatment and customised preferential treatment, on consumer-brand identification in different service settings.

3.4.4 Other Antecedents

Apart from the variables associated with self-definitional needs, several studies have attempted to investigate the effect of other variables on CI. In a non-profit context, Bhattacharya et al. (1995) and Boenigk and Helmig (2013) demonstrated the positive impact of satisfaction on CI. With regard to affiliation characteristics, Bhattacharya et al. (1995) found that length of membership influences the level of members' identification, visibility of membership is not significantly related to identification, and members' participation in similar organisations is negatively related to identification. Similarly, Cornwell and Coote (2005) reported a positive relationship between tenure of participation in an event and CI. In contrast to the Bhattacharya et al. (1995) findings, Cornwell and Coote (2005) found no significant relationship between members' participation in similar events and their level of identification.

Further, some prior studies provided empirical evidence demonstrating that identification exists at multiple levels and that identification with a brand, company or team is influenced by an individual's identification with associated communities or groups. For instance, Heere et al. (2011) examined the impact of an individual's identification with a state, city and university on team identification. In a similar vein, it was found that identification with other members of the organisation has a positive impact on identification (Fombelle et al., 2012). Zhou et al. (2012) reported a significant relationship between brand community identification and brand identification. With regard to functional values derived from the brand, a positive relationship was found between perceived quality (Lam et al., 2013), service quality (He & Li, 2011) and CI. Kuenzel and Halliday (2008) and Hong and Yang (2011) found that satisfaction has a positive impact on identification. Moreover, Kuenzel and Halliday (2008) reported that satisfaction has a stronger impact on identification relative to communication and the brand's prestige.

	Antecedents				Consequences		
Reference	**Self-consistency**	**Self-distinctiveness**	**Self-enhancement**	**Other**	**In-Role**	**Extra-Role**	**Other**
Ahearne et al. (2005)	Company characteristics (S) Salesperson characteristics (S)		External image of the company (NS)	-	Product utilisation (S)	Extra-role behaviour (S)	
Albert & Merunka (2013)	-	-	-	-			Brand love (S) Commitment (S)
Albert et al. (2013)	-	-	-	-			Brand Passion (S) Commitment (S
Ashraf & Merunka (2013)	-	-	-	-			Company Commitment (S) In-group commitment (S)
Bagozzi et al. (2012)	-	-	-	-		Feedback (NS) Resilience to negative information (S) Social promotion (S) Action promotion (S) Participation (S)	
Bagozzi & Dholakia (2006)	-	-	-	Social identity with brand's community (S)	Purchase frequency and amount (NS)		
Becerra & Badrinarayanan (2013)	-	-	-	Brand Trust ((S)	Purchase intentions (NS)	Positive brand referrals (S) Oppositional brand referrals (S)	
Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen (2010)	-	-	-	Sense of community (S)	Brand Loyalty (NS)		Brand Love (S)
Bhattacharya & Sen (2003)	Identity similarity*	Identity distinctiveness *	Identity prestige*	-	Company Loyalty *	Company promotion* Customer recruitment* Resilience to negative information *	Stronger claim on company*

Bhattacharya et al. (1995)	-	-	Organisational Prestige (S)	Satisfaction (S) Length of membership (S) Visibility of membership (NS) Participation in similar organisations (-) (S) Contact frequency (S) Donations (NS)	-	-	-
Boenigk & Helmig (2013)	-	-	Donor Orientation (S)	Donor satisfaction (S)	Donor loyalty (S)	Donations (NS)	
Brown et al. (2005**)**	-	-	-	-		WOM (S)	Commitment (S)
Cardador & Pratt (2006)	Physical Proximity*	-	-	Reward-based control* Temporal Contact *	-	-	-
Carlson et al. (2009)	-	Team Distinctiveness (S)	Team Prestige (S)	-	Games watched (S)	Retail spending (S)	
Casaló et al. (2010)	-	-	-	-		Promotion (S) Participation (NS)	Satisfaction (S)
Choo et al. (2011)	-	-	-	-		Activities for visitor satisfaction (S) Participation (S) WOM (S)	
Cornwell & Coote (2005)	-	-	Perceived organisational prestige (S)	Tenure of participation (S) Events participated in regularly (-) (NS) Primary motivation for participation (S)	Sponsorship-linked purchase intent (S)		
Currás-Pérez (2009)	-	CSR identity (S)	-		Purchase Intent (NS)		Company Attitude (S) Commitment (S)
Currás-Pérez et al. (2009)	Brand attractiveness (S)			-	Purchase intention (S)		Brand attitude (S)
Dimitriadis & Papista (2010)	-	-	-	-	Expectation of Continuity*	Resilience to N. information * WOM*	Brand Relationship Quality*

Donavan et al. (2006)	Proximity (S but in negative direction)	-	Significant others (S)	-		Symbol Passing and Collecting	Affective commitment (S)
Ekinci et al. (2013)	-	-	-	-	Brand loyalty (S)		
Fombelle et al. (2012)	-	-	-	Identity synergy (S) Peer identification (S)	-	-	-
He & Mukherjee (2009)	Perceived Congruence*	-	-	-			Consumer responses
	Perceived attractiveness*						
He & Li (2011)	-	CSR (S)	-	Service quality (S)	Loyalty (indirect)		Customer satisfaction (S)
He et al. (2012)	Brand Identity (S)			-	Brand loyalty (indirect)		Brand Trust (S) Perceived value (S) Satisfaction (S)
Heere et al. (2011)	-	-	-	State identity (NS) City identity (NS) University identity S)	Attendance of games (S) Media consumption (S)	Merchandising (S)	
Hildebrand et al. (2010)	Similarity (S)	Distinctiveness (S)	-		Repurchase (S)	WOM (S) Resilience to negative information (S)	
	Attractiveness (S)						
Homburg et al. (2009)	-	-	Customer orientation (S)	Employee-company identification (S)	Customer loyalty (S)	Willingness to pay more (S)	
Homburg et al. (2013)	-	Philanthropic CSR (S)	-	-	Customer Loyalty (S)		
Hong & Yang (2009)	-	-	Reputation (S)	Relational Satisfaction (NS)		PWOM (S)	
Hong & Yang (2011)	-	-	Reputation (NS)	Relational satisfaction (S)		PWOM activity and praise (S)	Use of organisational media (S)
Hong et al. (2010)	-	Perceptions of company CSR (S)	-	-		Feedback intentions (S)	
Johnson (2008)	-	-	-	Electronic channel assimilation (S)	-		
Johnson et al. (2013)	-	-	-	-		Helping (S)	
Jones & Runyan (2013)	-	-	-	Brand experience (S)			Brand community (S)

Jones & Kim (2011)	-	-	-	-			Brand Community (partially supported)
Karaosmanoğlu et al. (2011)	Other customer effect (S)			Emotional Attachment (S)		Extra-role behaviour (S)	Corporate image (NS)
Keh & Xie (2009)	-	-	Corporate Reputation (S)	Customer Trust (S)	Purchase Intension (S)	Price Premium (S)	Customer Commitment (S)
Kim et al. (2001)	Attractiveness of brand personality (S)		-	-	Brand loyalty (NS)	Word of mouth (S)	
Kuenzel & Halliday (2008)	-	-	Prestige (S)	Satisfaction (S) Communication (S)	Repurchase (S)	Word of mouth (S)	
Kuenzel & Halliday (2010)	Ideal brand personality congruence (S)	-	Reputation (S)	-	Brand loyalty (S)		
Lam et al. (2013)	Self–brand congruity (S) Consumer innate innovativeness (S)	-	-	Perceived quality (S)	-	-	-
Lee et al. (2012)	Perceived fit between consumers and CSR activities (S)	-	-	-	Consumer loyalty (S)		
Lichtenstein et al. (2010)	-	-	-	Employee organisational identification (S)			Financial performance (S)
Lii (2011)	-	CSR initiatives (S)	-	-	In-role behaviour (S)	Extra-role behaviour (S)	
Lii & Lee (2012)	-	CSR initiatives (S)	-	-	In-Role behaviour (S)	Extra-Role behaviour (S)	Brand attitude (S)
Marin & de Maya (2013)	Personal connection with salespeople (S)	-	-	Need for affiliation (S)	-	-	-
	Identity Attractiveness (S)						
Marzocchi et al. (2013)	-	-	-	-		Resilience to negative information (NS) Propensity to comment (partial support)	Brand Affect (S) Brand Trust (S) Attitudinal loyalty (S)
Marin et al. (2009)		CSR (S)		-	Loyalty (S)		
	Identity attractiveness (S)						

Nam et al. (2011)	-	-	-	-	Brand loyalty (S)		Customer satisfaction (S)
Netemeyer et al. (2012)	Customer- perceived employee similarity	-	-	-			Customer spending (S)
Pai Cheng et al. (2010)	-	-	-	-		Community engagement (S	Brand knowledge (S) Normative pressure (S)
Pérez et al. (2013)	-	CSR associations (S)	-	Commercial expertise associations (S)	Loyalty (S)		Satisfaction (S)
Proksch et al. (2013)	-	-	-	-			Brand Attachment (S)
Qu & Lee (2011)	-	-	-	Community participation (S)		Knowledge sharing (S) Community promotion (S)	Behavioural changes (NS)
Shirazi et al. (2013)	Brand identity (S)			-			Satisfaction (S) Perceived value (S) Brand trust (NS)
So et al. (2013)	-	-	-	-	Brand Loyalty (NS)		Service Quality (S) Perceived Value(S) Brand Trust (S)
Stokburger-Sauer (2010)	-	-	-	Brand Community integration (PS)	Customer loyalty (S)	Customer advocacy (S)	Customer satisfaction (S)
Stokburger-Sauer (2011)	Personality congruence (S)	-	-	Brand embeddedness (S)	Brand visit intentions (S)	Brand advocacy (S)	
Stokburger-Sauer et al. (2012)	Brand-self similarity (S)	Brand distinctiveness (S)	Brand Prestige (NS)	Brand social benefits (S) Brand warmth (S) Memorable brand experience (S)	Brand loyalty (S)	Brand Advocacy (S)	
Tsai & Pai (2012)	-	-	-	Community participation (S)	Loyalty Intentions (S)		Consumer Power (S)
Tsai & Pai (2013)	-	-	-	Member receptivity (S) Member involvement(S) Enjoyment (S) Informativness (S)		Proactive participation behaviour (S)	
Tuškej et al. (2013)	Value congruence (S)	-	-	-		PWOM (S)	Brand Commitment (S)

Tuzun & Devrani (2011)	-	-	-	-		Customer citizenship behaviour (S)	
Valette-Florence & De Barnier (2013)	-	-	-	Brand personality (S)	-	-	-
Vanhamme et al. (2012)	-	-	-	Cause type (S) Cause scope (S) Cause acuteness (S)			Corporate image (S)
Wu & Tsai (2008)	-	Identity distinctiveness (NS)	Identity prestige (S)			Customer recruitment (S) Tolerance of defects (S) Consumer advice (S)	
	Identity attractiveness (S)						
Wu et al. (2008)	-	-	-	Consumer perceptions regarding employee service performance (S)	-	-	-
Yeh & Choi (2011)	-	-	-	-	Brand loyalty (S)		Cognition-based community trust (S) Affect -based community trust (S)
Zhou et al. (2012)	-	-	-	Brand community identification (S)			Commitment (S) Emotional Attachment (S)

* Conceptual papers, hypothesized relationships are not empirically examined

S=Supported, NS= Not Supported

Table 3.9 Summary of Antecedents and Consequences of Consumer Identification in the Literature

3.5 Research into the Consequences of Consumer Identification

The social identity approach proposes that individuals tend to choose activities that are congruent with important aspects of their identities and support institutions that reflect those identities (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In line with this reasoning, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) proposed that identifiers have a clear stake in the success of the company, driven by their self-definitional needs, and thus will be motivated to engage in beneficial kinds of behaviour for the company and to be committed to the achievement of the company's goals. Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) further envisaged consumers' behaviour resulting from identification along a continuum ranging from low levels (i.e. passive or in-role behaviour) such as repurchase intentions to high levels (i.e. active or extra-role behaviour) such as positive word of mouth and resilience to negative experiences (Lam et al., 2012).

Based on the synthesis of the literature, Table 3.9 identifies the consequences of CI and classifies them into two main groups: Variables related to passive or in-role behaviour and variables related to active or extra-role behaviour. However, variables that are not related to in-role or extra-role behaviour are grouped under "others" category. More specifically, variables were classified following Lam (2012), Bettencourt (1997), Bove et al. (2009), Groth (2005), and Johnson and Rapp (2010). The systematic review revealed that prior research has primarily examined: (a) the impact of CI on consumers' in-role behaviour such as customer loyalty and repurchase intentions, (b) the influence of CI on consumers' extra-role behaviour such as positive word of mouth and customer recruitment, and (c) the effect of CI on other variables specifically consumer-brand relationships including brand love, brand passion, and brand commitment.

In the context of members of non-profit organisations and college sports teams, identification was found to be positively related to members' exhibition of in role behaviour such as intentions to purchase sponsors' products (Cornwell & Coote, 2005), number of games watched (Carlson et al., 2009; Heere et al., 2011), donor loyalty (Boenigk & Helmig, 2013) and extra-role behaviour such as symbol passing and collecting (Carlson et al., 2009; Donavan et al., 2006; Heere et al., 2011). In support of these findings, in the consumer context, empirical research reported preliminary support that CI influences both consumers' in-role behaviour such as product utilisation (Ahearne et al., 2005), repurchase intention (Currás-Pérez et al., 2009; Hildebrand et al., 2010; Keh & Xie, 2009; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; Lam et al., 2012), customer loyalty (Ekinci et al., 2013; Homburg et al., 2013; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010; Lee et al., 2012; Marin et al., 2009; Nam et al., 2011; Pérez et al., 2013; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012; Yeh & Choi, 2011) and extra-role behaviour such as offline word of mouth (Bagozzi et al., 2012; Brown et al., 2005; Choo et al., 2011; Hildebrand et al., 2010; Hong & Yang, 2009; Kim et al., 2001; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; Tuškej et al., 2013), online word of mouth (Lam et al., 2012), customer recruitment (Bagozzi et al., 2012; Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013; Stokburger-Sauer, 2010, 2011; Wu & Tsai, 2008), resilience to negative information and experiences (Bagozzi et al., 2012; Hildebrand et al., 2010; Wu & Tsai, 2008), willingness to pay more (Homburg et al., 2009; Keh & Xie, 2009), participation (Bagozzi et al., 2012;

Choo et al., 2011; Tsai & Pai, 2013), feedback (Hong et al., 2010), consumer advice and complaints (Wu & Tsai, 2008) and helping (Johnson et al., 2013).

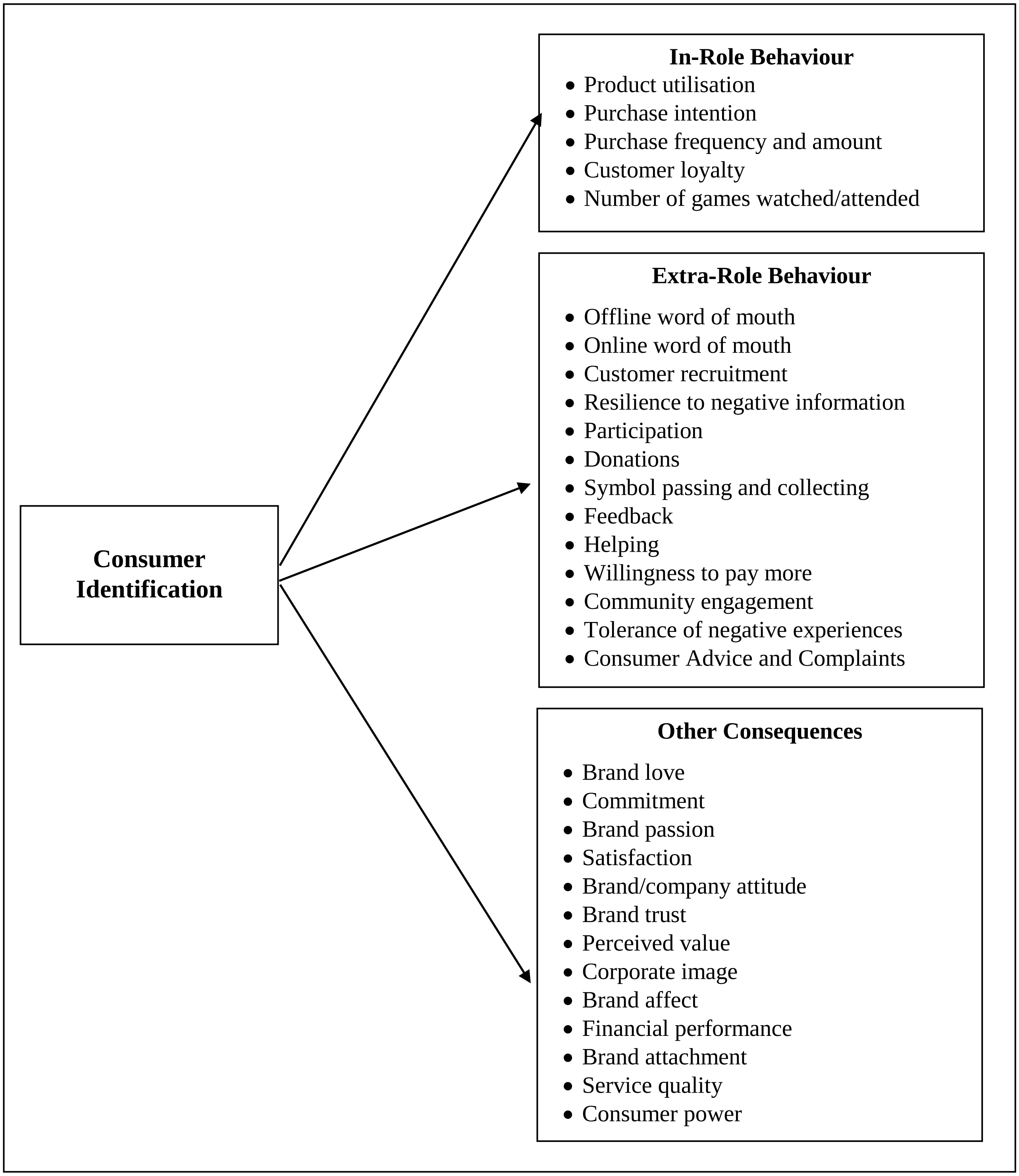


Figure 3.6 Consequences of Consumer Identification

Indeed, almost all of the previous studies found a positive relationship between CI and a multitude of consequences (see Table 3.9). A number of studies, however, show partially divergent results. Kim et al. (2001) found that brand identification is not significantly related to brand loyalty. Similarly, Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010) and So et al. (2013) reported that CI does not significantly influence brand loyalty. Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006), in their study of group communities, found that brand identification does not significantly influence purchase frequency and amount. In support of these findings, Becerra and Badrinarayanan (2013) and Currás-Pérez (2009) found no significant relationship between purchase intentions and CI. Regarding the impact of CI on extra-role behaviour, it was found that identification does not significantly influence feedback (Bagozzi et al., 2012), participation (Casaló et al., 2010), and resilience to negative information (Marzocchi et al., 2013).

3.6 The Need for Research on Consumer Identification

Through a comprehensive systematic literature review, how CI has been conceptualised and measured in the marketing literature was objectively assessed. In addition, a review of the antecedents and consequences of CI was provided. Overall, little consensus in conceptualisation or language used and limited evidence of reliability and/or validity in the scales employed was observed. Further, notwithstanding a considerable amount of research has examined the antecedents and consequences of CI, little attention has been given to examining the impact of relationship marketing tactics on CI. In addition, despite the importance of consumers' extra-role behaviour to the organisation, the impact of identification on consumers' extra-role behaviour in the service context is underexplored. In what follows, these three central substantive issues were taken in turn and the salient themes were elaborated.

3.6.1 Limitations of Current Conceptualisation of Consumer Identification

This review highlighted a considerable debate as to whether CI is a unidimensional or a multidimensional construct. This divergence in turn results in different understandings of the construct and the use of multiple definitions of the same construct makes it difficult to compare findings (Churchill, 1979). The majority of marketing research, at both the company level and the brand level, emphasised the cognitive aspect of identification and neglected other dimensions of identification. Literature with CI conceptualised as a multidimensional construct is confusing and self-contradictory. Specifically, CI was conceptualised as both a second-order formative (Lam et al., 2010) and reflective (Bagozzi et al., 2012) construct. Reflections on social identity theory and the literature suggest that the cognitive school may not adequately conform to the theoretical definition of the identification construct and thus fails to capture the conceptual richness of the construct. Three arguments were identified that make it difficult to maintain the position that CI is a unidimensional cognitive construct.

First, the notion that identification is a cognitive construct was initially proposed by Ashforth and Mael (1989). However, A&M (1989: 21) stated that their view "does contrast with some literature on SIT, which includes affective and evaluative dimensions in the conceptualisation of identity". The majority of subsequent work on identification in the marketing literature was based either implicitly or explicitly on cognitive conceptualisations of organisational identification (OI), and is thus conceptually flawed. A&M (1989) maintain that defining identification as a perceptual cognitive construct is crucial to separate it from other similarly related constructs such as effort on behalf of the group (behaviour) and loyalty (affect), which should be considered as antecedents or consequences. Johnson et al. (2012) noted that, in an attempt to differentiate identification from behaviour and affect, early organisational behaviour researchers have focused almost exclusively on the cognitive dimension of identification. This pervasive unquestionable use of cognitive conceptualisation of identification has popularised the view that identification is strictly a cognitive construct.

Second, given that the underlying theory of CI research, at both the company level and the brand level, is SIT (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Lam et al., 2012), CI should be conceptualised and defined in line with SIT foundations. Tajfel (1981: 225) defined social identity as "that part of the individual's self-concept which derives from knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership". That is, SIT recognises the role of both basic motivational and cognitive processes in explaining intergroup perceptions and behaviour (Reed II, 2002). In particular, Tajfel (1982: 2) postulated three dimensions of identification: A cognitive dimension (the sense of awareness of membership), an evaluative dimension (the sense that this awareness is related to some value connotations) and an emotional dimension (the emotional investment in this awareness and evaluations). Tajfel (1982) concluded that in order to achieve the stage of identification with a social group, the cognitive, evaluative and emotional dimensions are necessary.

Third, related to the above, the unidimentional cognitive perspective has been vigorously challenged (e.g. Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Johnson et al., 2012). Jackson (2002) argued that one reason for the majority of research to emphasise the cognitive aspect of identification and neglect the multidimensional view is attributed to the results of numerous minimal group studies undertaken by Tajfel and his colleagues. Thus, it may have been concluded that mere categorisation is sufficient to create identification and induce extra-role behaviour (Jackson, 2002), however, this is not the case in natural social contexts (Ellemers et al., 1999). Turner (1999) overtly stated that identification is not unitary; it is a multidimensional construct. In supporting this position, Van Dick et al. (2004) argued that identification with social categories affects the individual's cognitions, emotions and behaviour since it affects the individual as a person as a whole. Harquail (1998: 225) proposed that "OI engages more than our cognitive self-categorisation and our brains, it engages our hearts". In the same vein, Ashforth et al. (2008) argued that valuing a certain identity is likely to arouse affect and feelings of strong ties to that identity. Proponents of the multidimensional perspective, concur with the cognitive dimension, but emphasise that identification cannot be properly understood without considering the emotional and evaluative dimensions (Edwards, 2005).

Thus, at the theoretical level, it seems that the multidimensional definition of identification outperforms the unidimensional pure cognitive conceptualisation (Lam, 2012). It can be concluded that CI is most appropriately conceptualised as a multidimensional construct, based on the foundations of SIT and the evidence from the literature. CI is a multidimensional construct that entails not only consumers' cognitive identification, but also their affective and evaluative identification. A refinement of CI definition is called for, so that the linkage between SIT and conceptualisation is evident, and the construct can be used to make better predictions of consumers' attitudes and behaviours. A unified theoretically grounded conceptualisation of identification is necessary to resolve the inconsistencies in the existing literature.

3.6.2 Limitations of Current Measurement of Consumer Identification

The majority of the studies reviewed here adapted item scales from studies developed to measure OI, utilised portions of current scales, grouped items from different scales, or used measures of other constructs (e.g. self-brand connection). Very often, researchers did not provide any theoretical rationale for relying on scale measures used by prior studies to measure CI. Given the construct definition arguments advanced above, the degree to which existing scales truly measure what they should purportedly measure is questionable. Six instruments developed from the first principles were identified: two of these instruments were developed in the employee contexts to measure OI and the other four instruments were developed to measure CI. The six works do not recognise the multidimensional nature of CI. Thus, the validity of conclusions drawn at the dimension level is questionable (Wong et al., 2008). The most predominately used instrument in the marketing literature is Mael and Ashforth's (1992) six-item scale of OI. Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) criticised Mael and Ashforth (1992) six-item scale as having several limitations, and developed a visual item and a verbal item to measure OI. The Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) scale too has been subjected to a number of theoretical and operational criticisms (Edwards, 2005; Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Wieseke et al., 2009). The shortcomings of these two popular OI measures used by marketing researchers to operationalise CI are now presented.

Mael and Ashforth (M&A) (1992) scale: Mael and Ashforth (1992) conceptualised OI by concentrating almost exclusively on the cognitive aspect of identification (Johnson et al., 2012). Despite its popularity within the marketing literature, (M&A) scale has been criticised on numerous grounds. Edwards and Peccei (2007: 29) suggested that the scale appears to have "an affective flavour". Bergami and Bagozzi (2000: 559) argued that the M&A scale taps not only the cognitive dimension of identification but comprises "causes, effects and correlates of identification". For instance, feeling a sense of pride or embarrassment on behalf of the organisation is more likely to capture the affective dimension of identification: "When someone praises [organisation], it feels like a personal compliment", "If a story in the media criticised [organisation], I would feel embarrassed", and "When someone criticises [organisation], it feels like a personal insult". In the same vein, Van Dick (2001) argued that M&A scale places more emphasis on the evaluative and affective dimensions of identification, whereas the cognitive dimension is totally overlooked. This was reinforced by Whetten (2007: 261), who posited that M&A scale items might be an indicator of other factors such as "perceived external threat to an organisation's well-being or an individual's high need for affiliation". This shows that the initial definition of the identification construct is not adequately reflected by M&A scale. Moreover, employing a unidimensional scale that comprises items that tap into causes, effects and correlates of identification would lead to a problem of circular reasoning (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). In addition, other researchers raised concerns about the content validity of the scale. Specifically, Abrams and de Moura (2001: 137) argued that M&A scale is "predominantly concerned with public expressions of identification rather than its subjective meaning". This may be attributed to the fact that five items of the scale are adapted from the "shared experiences" dimension of Mael and Tetrick's (1992) identification with a psychological group scale (Edwards, 2005). Furthermore, the failure of M&A scale to capture the multifaceted nature of identification in accordance with the social identity theory (Johnson et al., 2012) is significant.

Bergami and Bagozzi (B&B) (2000) scale: Citing limitations with M&A (1992) scale, Bergami and Bagozzi (2000: 557) defined OI as "a cognitive state of self - categorisation" and developed a scale consisting of a visual item and a verbal item measuring the extent of perceived overlap between the individual's identity and the organisation's (or brand's) identity. This scale is not without limitations. First, B&B assumed that the respondents and the researcher have the same notion of what is meant by identity, raising serious doubts with respect to question interpretation across respondents (Edwards, 2005). Identity is an elusive and ubiquitous concept that most of the people find difficulty in defining (Gleason, 1983). Moreover, in the marketing literature, brand identity covers a variety of constructs including personality, values, and the typical buyer (Kapferer, 1992). Therefore, in the absence of other items, this measure may suffer from potential limited reliability and validity (Edwards, 2005). It is worth noting that some marketing researchers operationalised consumer-company (or brand) identification using only one item adapted from B&B scale (e.g. Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006; Stokburger-Sauer, 2010). Moreover, Wieseke et al. (2009) in their pretest of the measurement scales reported the difficulty found with B&B two-item scale compared to M&A scale. In support of this, Shamir and Kark (2004: 121) contended that "the graphic scale is not superior to verbal scales of organisational identification" and suggested that further work is needed to support its reliability and validity.

Second, is the perceived overlap between the individual's identity and the brand's (or company's) identity truly a reflective of identification or it is merely a perceived identity congruence measure? Even though, Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) argued for the need to differentiate between the cognitive state of self-categorisation and the categorical overlap between self attributes and organisational attributes, their measure might be better interpreted as a measure of similarity or congruence which can be an antecedent to identification. This is because, Whetten (2007: 262) contended that B&B scale is an identity congruence scale measuring the subjective similarity between the individual's identity and the identity of the organisation. In the consumption context, consistent with SIT, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) suggested that identity similarity may serve as a driver of identification. Thus, measuring identification in this manner may impede the predictive power of the construct. For instance, Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006) found no significant impact of brand identification on brand behaviour when using B&B scale. Moreover, this can create problems for the conceptual and the operational distinctiveness of the existing constructs in the marketing literature. A further significant criticism of B&B scale is the singular concentration on the cognitive dimension.

Overall, two serious questions surround the current opertionalisations of CI. First, there is a slippage between the conceptualisation and operationalisation of identification, thus raising problems of content validity. Second, concerns arise related to the discriminant validity of the identification measures as the items are almost tapping into antecedents and potential outcomes of identification. The weaknesses of the existing scales can be attributed primarily to the flawed construct definition. Consistent with the need for a multidimensional conceptualisation of the identification construct, the measurement of identification should tap the multifaceted nature of identification. Therefore, the remedy herein is the development of a rigorous multidimensional measurement scale related to the multidimensional conceptualisation of the construct.

3.6.3 Limitations of Current Empirical Research on Consumer Identification

Through this comprehensive critical review of prior studies addressing the drivers and outcomes of CI, a number of limitations are apparent in the extant literature. First, despite the acknowledgment of the importance of CI as a key antecedent to consumer behaviours (Lam et al., 2013), little is known about the drivers of CI (Marin & De Maya, 2013; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). While it is clear that building strong relationships with consumers would enhance their favourable attitudes and behaviours toward the brand, consumers' motivations to enter into volitional enduring relationships with brands remains unclear (Fournier, 1998; Marin & Ruiz, 2007). The concept of self-enhancement provides a starting point for investigating consumers' motives. According to the social identity approach, the basic motive for identifying with a social group or category is the enhancement of one's self-esteem and social identity i.e. the desire to view oneself in a positive light. As previously mentioned, prior research has extensively focused on examining the influence of variables related to the target entity image including brand prestige and corporate reputation. However, to the best of the author's knowledge, little empirical research (Ahearne et al., 2005; Homburg et al., 2009) has considered other variables that are likely to fulfil consumers' self-enhancement needs such as variables associated with the company's employees and/or the tactics employed by the company to deal with consumers.

In a consultative selling context of pharmaceutical sales reps calling on physicians, Ahearne et al. (2005) examined the influence of salesperson characteristics (e.g. compassionate, innovative, progressive, socially responsible, and sensitive) on the extent to which physicians identify with the company. Thus, Ahearne et al. (2005) study addressed only a small portion of employee-related variables (i.e. salesperson personality) and the study was conducted in a single industry. Further, in the context of travel agencies, Homburg et al. (2009) investigated the influence of customer orientation on CI. However, the focus of the study was not addressing the employees' behaviour and its impact on the extent to which consumers identify with the travel agency. Indeed, the main objective of Homburg et al. (2009) study was proposing that customer loyalty, willingness to pay, and company's financial performance can be enhanced through the management of both customer satisfaction and social identity service-profit chains. Although both studies have provided important insights, examining other employee-related variables in different service contexts is needed to better understand the drivers of CI. On the other hand, investigating the impact of relationship marketing tactics on CI remains unexplored. According to De Wulf et al. (2001: 33), "relationship marketing tactics plays a predominant role because of the increased importance consumers attach to relational properties of their interactions" with service providers. Although the influence of different relationship marketing tactics was tested on other relationship outcomes such as relationship commitment, relationship satisfaction and relationship quality (De Wulf et al., 2001; Odekerken-Schröderet al., 2003), how relationship marketing tactics influence CI is yet to receive empirical inquiry.

Second, notwithstanding a considerable amount of research has examined the influence of CI on word of mouth (WOM) and customer recruitment (see Table 3.9), little attention has been given to other forms of extra-role behaviour (also known as customer citizenship behaviour and voluntary behaviour) including cooperation, participation and helping behaviour. Although brand promotion is "among the most important responses that can emerge from efforts directed at forming relationships with customers" (Brown et al., 2005: 123), it captures only a part of consumers extra-role behaviour. The importance of this voluntary and supportive customer behaviour to the overall success of the service organisations has been highlighted in the literature (e.g. Bettencourt, 1997; Groth, 2005). In the consumer identification literature, some prior studies tend to group the extra-role behaviour constructs together (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005; Karaosmanoğlu et al., 2011; Lii, 2011; Lii & Lee, 2012; Tuzun & Devrani, 2011), so that the information of their individual performance is missing. Moreover, empirical studies investigating the impact of identification on consumers' participation and propensity to provide feedback to the organisation produced mixed results. For example, Hong et al. (2010) found a positive relationship between CI and feedback intentions, whereas Bagozzi et al. (2012) found feedback to be unrelated to CI. In terms of participation, while Bagozzi et al. (2012) and Tsai and Pai (2013) reported the significant influence of CI on participation, Casaló et al. (2010) found no significant relationship between CI and participation. Given that the effectiveness of consumers' extra-role behaviour provide service organisations with different avenues of competitive advantage (Bove et al., 2009), it is important to better understand the determinants that help promote this voluntary and supportive behaviour.

3.7 Summary

Following a systematic review of relevant peer-reviewed articles published between 1989 and 2013 in six major electronic databases, this chapter discussed three main issues: (a) conceptualisation of consumer identification, (b) measurement of consumer identification, and (c) antecedents and consequences of consumer identification. This comprehensive review of the extant consumer identification literature demonstrated a number of research gaps that are worthy of further investigation which will be addressed in the following chapters. In the next chapter, a theory-derived conceptualisation of consumer-brand identification and the relationship between the construct and its dimensions are specified. The next chapter also highlights the distinction between consumer-brand identification and other conceptually similar constructs in the marketing literature.

CHAPTER FOUR

RECONCEPTUALISING CONSUMER-BRAND IDENTIFICATION

4.1 Introduction

Following the comprehensive review of published literature on consumer identification in Chapter Three and aiming to address the research gaps identified, this chapter reconceptualises consumer-brand identification (CBI) construct and provides an initial postulation of its underlying dimensions. The chapter also clarifies the conceptual distinctiveness between CBI construct and other conceptually similar constructs that have been identified in the marketing literature. Developing a preliminary definition of CBI construct and exploring the construct's dimensionality allows this research to move towards addressing the third research objective "To develop a theoretically grounded definition and understanding of the underlying dimensions of consumer-brand identification construct". Addressing this research objective represents the first crucial step towards developing a rigorous measure of the CBI construct and thus helps to address the fifth research objective "To develop a reliable, valid, and parsimonious measurement scale of consumer-brand identification". This chapter starts with developing a preliminary theoretically grounded definition of CBI, followed by presenting the construct's proposed dimensions. The conceptual distinction between CBI and similar constructs in the extant literature is then highlighted. This chapter concludes with summary remarks. Figure 4.1 shows how the chapter is structured.

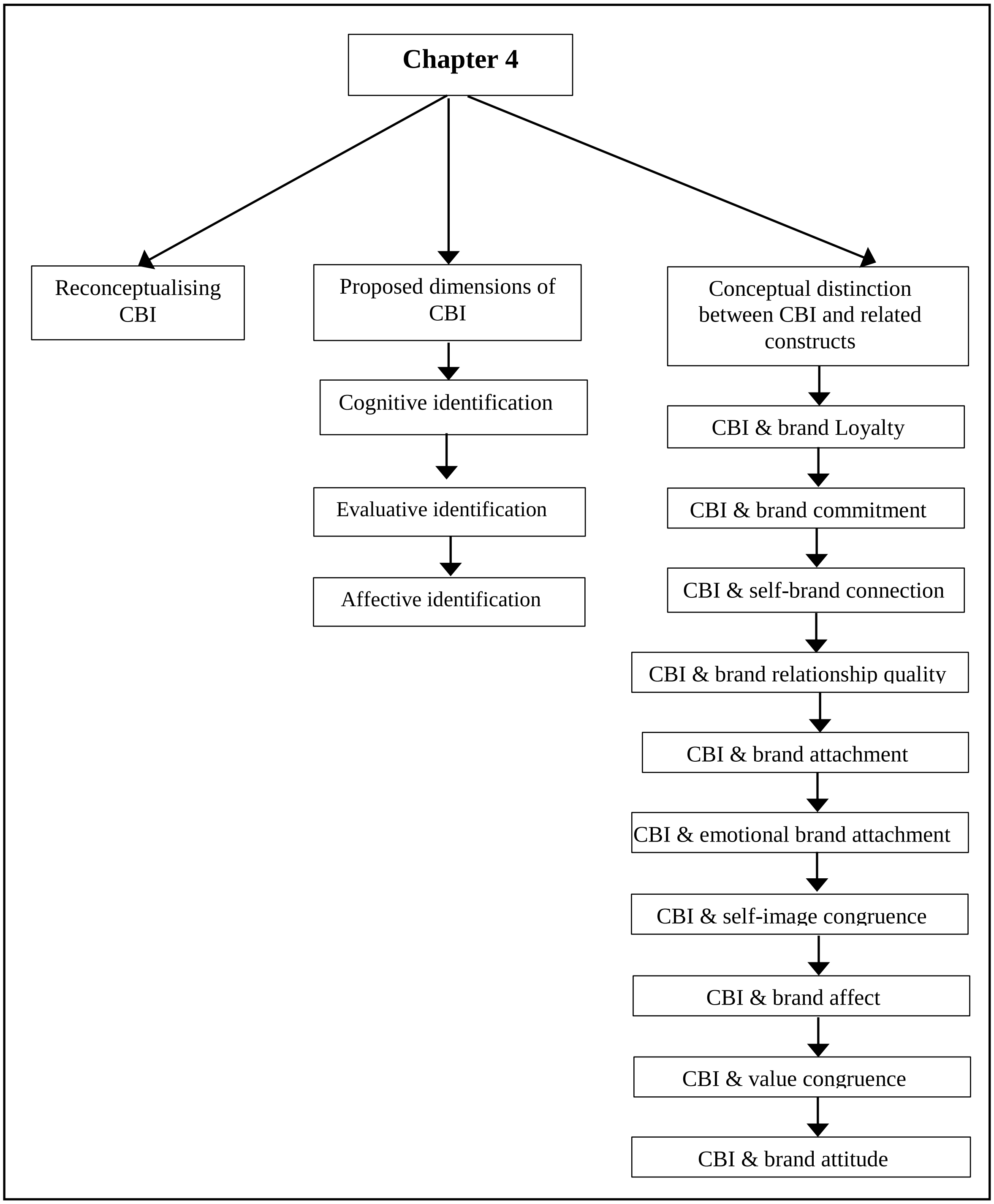


Figure 4.1 Structure of Chapter Four

4.2 Reconceptualising Consumer-Brand Identification

Chapter Three highlighted that the majority of the research to date has conceptualised identification as a unidimensional cognitive construct. Based on theoretical foundations and emerging literature, it was shown that consumer identification is most appropriately conceptualised as a multidimensional construct. The underlying theoretical foundation for the multidimensionality of the identification construct stems from Tajfel's (1981: 225) often-cited definition of social identity construct " that part of the individual's self-concept which derives from knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership". Specifically, this definition "has played a prominent role in much research and theorising" (Jackson & Smith, 1999: 120). As the definition demonstrates, Tajfel proposed a tridimensional conceptualisation of identification with a social group comprising of a cognitive dimension (the sense of awareness of membership), an evaluative dimension (the sense that this group membership is related to some value connotations from inside and/or outside) and an emotional dimension (the emotional investment in this awareness of group membership and evaluations associated with it). According to Tajfel (1982), in order to achieve the stage of identification with a social group, the cognitive, evaluative and emotional dimensions are necessary.

Drawing on Tajfel's initial definition, other researchers have presented multidimensional conceptualisations and theoretical frameworks of the social identification construct (e.g. Cameron, 2004; Ellemers et al., 1999; Hinkle et al., 1989;

Jackson, 2002; Jackson & Smith, 1999). Table 4.1 presents the theoretical frameworks that conceptualised social identification as a multidimensional construct grouped, for purposes of this discussion, into three main categories as suggested by Tajfel (1981). For instance, Hinkle et al. (1989) found that identification includes three components: a cognitive aspect of group membership, an emotional or affective aspect of group membership and group dynamics aspect. Ellemers et al. (1999) reported three aspects that represented social identity: group self-esteem (an evaluation component), self-categorisation (a cognitive component), and commitment to the group (an affective component). Jackson and Smith (1999) arrived at four factors: depersonalisation, attraction to the group, interdependency beliefs (or common fate), and perceptions of the intergroup context. Jackson (2002) argued for the presence of four different dimensions: self-categorisation (the cognitive component), ingroup ties (an emotional component), attraction to the group (an evaluative component), and perception of common fate. Cameron (2004) reported that social identification encapsulates three dimensions: a cognitive component labelled centrality, an affective component reflecting in-group ties, and an evaluative component labelled ingroup-affect.

An examination of Table 4.1 reveals a numbers of issues. First, there is a degree of theoretical (Ellemers et al., 2004; Tajfel, 1981) and empirical support (e.g. Cameron, 2004; Ellemers et al., 1999; Jackson, 2002) for the existence of multiple dimensions of identification. Second, there is a degree of consensus that the identification construct includes three main dimensions: cognitive identification, affective identification, and evaluative identification. Third, some differences exist regarding the dimension labelling issue. For instance, the affective dimension was labelled as affective commitment (Ellemers et al., 1999), attraction to the ingroup (Jackson & Smith, 1999), affective ties (Jackson, 2002), ingroup ties (Cameron, 2004). Moreover, whereas Jackson and Smith (1999) argued that attraction to the ingroup reflects the affective component, Jackson (2002) proposed that attraction to the ingroup is an evaluative component.

Authors	Cognitive	Affective	Evaluative	Others
Hinkle et al. (1989)	Cognitive aspects of group membership: perceiving the group as important and feeling strong ties with the group	Emotional or affective aspects of group membership		Group dynamics opposition
Ellemers et al. (1999)	Self-categorisation: cognitive awareness of one's group membership.	Affective commitment: the extent to which people feel emotionally involved with their group	Group self-esteem: the value connotation of that particular group membership.	
Jackson & Smith (1999)	Depersonalisation: thinking of the self more in terms of a group member and less in terms of a unique individual	Attraction to the ingroup: positive affect toward the in-group		Interdependency beliefs/ common fate: the future well-being of the self and the in-group are bound together. Perceptions of the intergroup context: the extent to which an out-group is salient.
Jackson (2002)	Self-categorisation: identification of the self as an ingroup member and perceptions of intragroup similarity and intergroup dissimilarity.	Affective ties: sense of unity, solidarity and togetherness.	Attraction to the ingroup: the value attached to being a member of the ingroup and favourable evaluations of the ingroup.	Perceiving common fate
Cameron (2004)	Centrality: frequency with which the group comes to mind and importance of the group to self-definition	Ingroup ties: feeling stuck to or part of particular social groups.	Ingroup affect: emotions that arise from group membership	

Table 4.1 Multidimensional Conceptualisations of the Social Identification Construct

Thus, at this stage, guided by Tajfel's original conceptualisation (1981, 1982) and other conceptualisations of social identification, consumer-brand identification was preliminarily defined as "*the extent to which the brand is incorporated into one's self concept whereby the consumer perceives a self-defining cognitive association with the brand, values this association, and feels an emotional attachment toward the brand*".

Precisely, seven characteristics of CBI are identified that help differentiate it from other related and similar constructs. First, CBI forms with specific brands and not with material possessions, product classes, companies or organisations. Specifically, a brand that represents an attractive and meaningful social identity with which a consumer self-associates is a target of identification. Second, consumers may identify with a brand without actual previous usage (e.g. luxury brands) (Lam et al., 2010). Third, identification is psychological in nature and thus does not require direct contact or interchange with others who categorise themselves with the same social category (Ashmore et al., 2004). Fourth, it is a type of self-extension in line with Belk's (1988) assertion that individuals extend themselves into places, ideas, material possessions (Kleine & Baker, 2004) and brands (Park et al., 2010). Fifth, identification is a volitional subjective claim (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003), that is, the individual does not associate with the brand unless he or she acknowledges it as self-defining, self–referring or self-evaluation in some respect (Ashmore et al., 2004). Identification develops primarily because of the brand's relevance and importance to one's self concept (definitional characteristics) and self-esteem (evaluative characteristics). It is a sense that this brand reflects part of "me" or says something about what kind of person I am or simply symbolises "who I am". Sixth, identification with brands is not an all-or-one phenomenon but a matter of degree that varies over time and across situations (O'Reilly III & Chatman, 1986). Seventh, brand identification is a multidimensional construct. Identification connotes not only self-categorisation but also involves "value and emotional significance", in the words of Tajfel (1981: 255).

4.3 Proposed Dimensions of Consumer-Brand Identification

The previous section of the chapter proposed that CBI comprises three dimensions, namely, cognitive identification, affective identification, and evaluative identification. Figure 4.2 presents the proposed components of CBI based on the social identity approach.

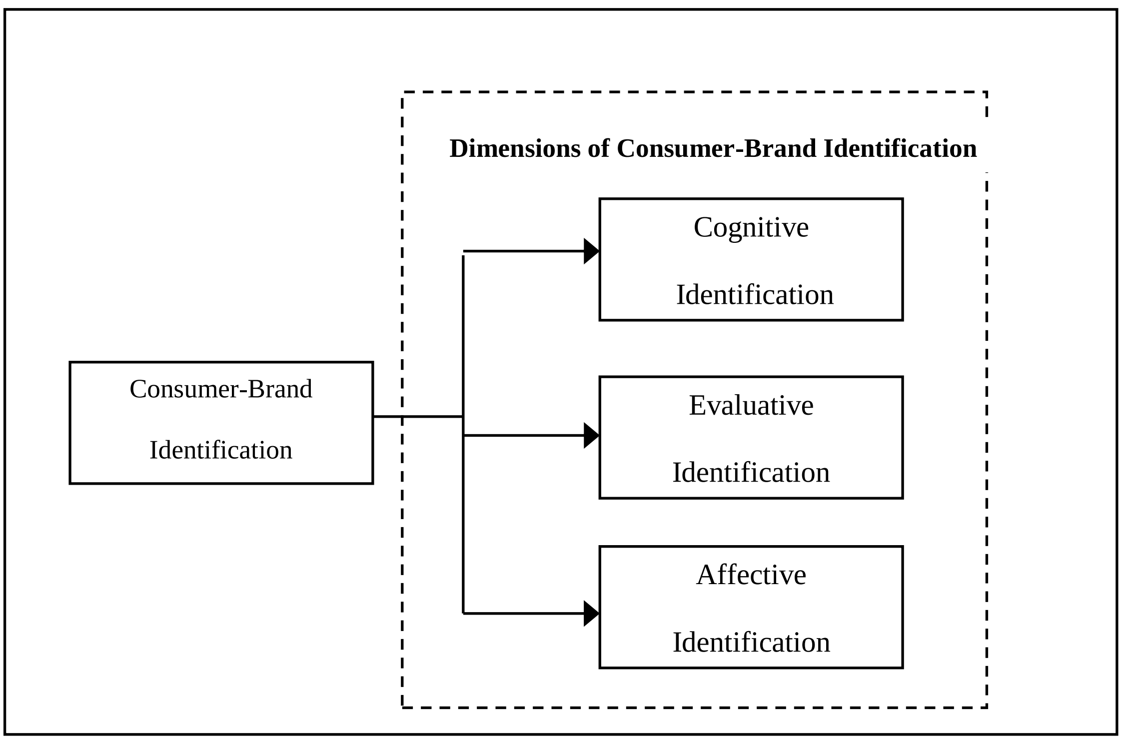


Figure 4.2 Preliminary Framework of Consumer-Brand Identification

4.3.1 Cognitive Identification

The cognitive dimension of identification basically corresponds to the process of self-categorisation or self-classification. Tajfel (1981: 225) defined this dimension as the individual's "knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups)". The process by which individuals identify themselves as members or categorise themselves as belonging to a particular social group is considered to be the heart of social identification (Ashmore et al., 2004). Self-categorisation or cognitive identification is considered a precondition for all other dimensions i.e. generally recognised as the first step of identifying with a particular group (Van Dick, 2001; Van Dick et al., 2004). That is, to feel emotionally attached to a particular social group or feel proud of being part of that particular social category, one must acknowledge that he is part of that group (by choice, circumstance, or other means) (Ashmore et al., 2004; Jackson, 2002).

According to social identity theory, individuals have a tendency to place themselves and others into social categories on the basis of their similarities with and dissimilarities from others (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The process of self-categorisation with a chronically or situationally salient social group is motivated by the need to reduce subjective uncertainty (Hogg, 2000). Uncertainty reduction particularly about issues that are directly or indirectly related to one's self-concept is a core human motivation (Hogg & Teryy, 2000). Specifically, uncertainty is associated with feelings of loss of control over one's life and thus individuals attempt to reduce uncertainty (Hogg, 2000). Social categorisation of self helps to reduce subjective uncertainty by "transforming self-conception and assimilating self to a prototype" (Hogg & Terry, 2000: 124). A prototype "embodies all attributes that characterise groups and distinguish them from other groups, including beliefs, attitudes, feelings, and behaviours" (Hogg & Terry, 2000: 123). It is the social identity prototype, which is "clearly and consensually defined" (Hogg, 2000: 233), that prescribes perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours when individuals are highly uncertain or face new and unknown situations and thus helps to reduce uncertainty (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

As Ellemers et al. (1999) noted, arbitrary and meaningless categorisation of individuals into groups is not the case in natural social contexts where individuals in a given situation are faced with various choices for self-categorisation (Ashmore et al., 2004). Individuals are more likely to categorise themselves with a particular social group given its relevance and salience i.e. self-categorisation is a function of relevance and salience (Van Dick et al., 2006). Individuals can cognitively identify themselves with a certain social group that is perceived to be relevant to their identity i.e. individuals perceive to fit into that social group (Van Dick et al., 2006). On the other hand, salience reflects the importance of that particular social identity to the individual's self-concept in the current situation (Reed II, 2004). The social groups that are perceived to be relevant and important to the individual's self-concept are more likely to constitute the basis for cognitive identification and group-based behaviour. Previous research in the marketing literature characterises the definitional associations between the consumer and the brand as cognitive in nature. Escalas and Bettman (2003) argued that when brand associations are used to define and construct one's self-concept, a cognitive connection between the consumer and the brand is formed. Park et al. (2010) suggested that a cognitive linkage between the consumer and the brand is developed as a result of categorising the brand as part of one's self-concept. Therefore, cognitive identification is defined as "*the consumers' readiness to self-categorise in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept"*.

4.3.2 Evaluative Identification

The notion that people define and evaluate themselves in terms of their social identities lies at the heart of social identity theory (Hogg, 2000). Indeed, the evaluative aspect of identification plays a fundamental role in social identity theory which asserted that negative social identity, resulting in less contribution to positive self-esteem, would motivate individuals to resort to three main strategies (e.g. social mobility, social creativity, or social competition) (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). That is, social identities have self-evaluative consequences i.e. social categories to which one associates with carry different degrees of positive and negative value for the self (Turner et al., 1994) derived from "both self- and perceived other-evaluations of one's social groups" (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992: 505). One of the main tenets of social identity theory is the self-esteem hypothesis (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), which states that individuals strive to enhance their self-esteem which is based on the degree that one's social groups are valued and perceived in a positive way compared to relevant out-groups. That is "low self-esteem motivates social identification and intergroup behaviour, and social identification elevates self-esteem" (Hogg, 2000: 226). The importance of enhancement one's self-esteem (i.e. feeling good about one's self) is why researchers consider it as basic to humanity (James, 1980), the second highest category within the hierarchy of human needs (Maslow, 1934), and a core motivation (Tesser, 1988) (Heine et al., 1999). Tajfel (1981) asserted that people identify with socially valued groups that contribute to a positive self-evaluation that endows the individual with a sense of personal value and enhanced self-esteem (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Thus, identification with well-regarded brands provides a means by which to enhance the positivity of one's self-evaluation because it allows individuals to bask in the reflected glory of the brand's successes (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003).

Two forms of evaluation contribute to the positivity of one's social identity and thus enhance one's self-esteem: (a) the evaluations or judgments of one's own social group, and (b) the perceived evaluations or judgments of others i.e. how I think others evaluate (positively or negatively) my own social group (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992; Sellers et al., 1997). Whereas Luhtanen and Crocker (1992) used the terms private and public collective self-esteem, Sellers et al. (1997) used the terms private regard and public regard. Cooley (1964) in his classic notion of "the looking-glass self "or "the reflected self" suggested that private regard and public regard should be the same. This view proposed that individuals develop their perceptions of themselves and their social groups though their evaluations of how others perceive their social groups (Brown, 1998). However, drawing on stigma analyses, Ashmore et al. (2004) proposed that private regard is not necessarily the same as public regard, such that an individual may belong to a group that is negatively evaluated by others (e.g. a stigmatised group), yet may be perceived as positive by individuals. In line with Johnson et al. (2012), the evaluative dimension of identification is characterised as inherently positive (e.g. pride) rather negative (e.g. shame). Specifically, "individuals who can say I am A and it's important to me want to feel positively about their membership, often find sources of pride in even the most stigmatised of collectives and roles……thus may generally feel an abiding sense of positiveness" (Ashforth et al., 2008: 329). Therefore, evaluative identification is defined as "*the extent to which consumers value their association with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people".*

4.3.3 Affective Identification

The third dimension of social identification is concerned with the emotional linkage between the self and the social group. This emotional sense of belongingness to a social group stems from Baumeister and Leary's (1995) notion which asserts that human beings, driven by their basic and fundamental need to belong, strive for positive, lasting and stable relationships (Ashmore et al., 2004). Tajfel (1981: 229) stated that identification includes affect `` . … in the sense that the cognitive and evaluative aspects of the group and one's membership of it may be accompanied by emotions directed toward one's own group" (Jackson, 2002). Specifically, Tajfel (1982: 2) defined the affective component of identification as "an emotional investment in the awareness and evaluations". Harquail (1998: 224) asserted that "individuals' general emotions as well as their self-specific emotions (e.g., self-esteem) are implicated by their identification with an organisation". Ellemers et al. (1999: 372) suggested that social identification primarily refers to the emotional dimension (i.e. feelings toward the group) rather than the cognitive dimension. Ashmore et al. (2004) pointed out that an emotional attachment is formed with groups perceived to be part of one's self-concept. In the same vein, Einwiller et al. (2006) asserted that identification occurs when the company becomes personally relevant for consumers and this creates the potential for feelings. Further, Fournier (1998) argued that emotional relationships emerge only when brands become integrated into consumers' lives and identity projects. Therefore, consistent with Tajfel's definition, affective identification is defined as "*the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses towards others' evaluations of the brand*".

Dimension	Definition
Cognitive identification	The consumers' readiness to self-categorise in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept.
Evaluative identification	The extent to which consumers value their association with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people
Affective Identification	The extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses towards others' evaluations of the brand

Table 4.2 Summary of CBI Dimensions and Their Definitions

4.4 Conceptual Distinction between Consumer-Brand Identification and Other Constructs

The lack of clear understanding as to whether CBI includes cognitive and/or affective components has been further compounded by a lack of clarity around CBI and related constructs. Indeed, researchers have begun to question the conceptual similarities of CBI with other similar constructs in the marketing literature (e.g. Dimitriadis & Papista, 2010; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). For instance, Brown et al.

(2005) and Papista and Dimitriadis (2012) stated that there are several constructs conceptually similar to CBI, including brand loyalty (Oliver, 1999), affective commitment (Harrison-Walker, 2001), self-brand connection (Escalas & Bettman, 2003) and self–image congruence (Kressmann et al., 2006). Thus, to contribute to a better understanding of the CBI construct and its distinctiveness becomes clearer, it is important to illustrate what lies outside the identification construct domain by distinguishing it from other existing constructs in the marketing literature. In line with the below conceptual distinction, the discriminant validity between CBI and similarly related construct is empirically assessed in Chapter 7. To enhance the response rate, the number of items that make up the questionnaire were restricted to a minimum and thus it was difficult to include all the similarly related constructs. Specifically, self-brand connection, brand relationship quality, brand attachment, emotional brand attachment, brand affect, and value congruence were not empirically assessed.

4.4.1 CBI and Brand loyalty

Brand loyalty is "a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronise a preferred product/service consistently in the future, causing repetitive same brand or same-brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour" (Oliver, 1999: 34). Bhattacharya et al. (1995) argued that brand loyalty may be an outcome of the functional benefits derived from the usage of products or services offered by the company, while identification relates to the brand's identity. Bhattacharya et al. (1995) further extended that although all individuals who identify with a brand are more likely to be loyal to that particular brand, not all loyal customers identify with the brand. Moreover, Lam et al. (2010) posited that 1) brand loyalty does not capture the evaluative component (either the individual or social) of identification, 2) previous usage of the brand is not a prerequisite for identification, and 3) identifying with a brand can induce extra-role behaviour beyond repurchase such as defending the brand and overlooking negative information about the brand. In the organisational context, Ashforth and Mael (1989) and Edwards (2005) argued that identification does not include any specific behaviour and this “distinguishes identification from related concepts such as effort on behalf of the group and loyalty" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989: 21). Indeed, numerous empirical studies have supported the view that loyalty is one of the consequences of consumer identification (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005; Ekinci et al., 2013; Homburg et al., 2009; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; Pérez et al., 2013; Wu & Tsai, 2008).

4.4.2 CBI and Brand Commitment

The psychological connection between an individual and a brand has been conceptualised in terms of both identification and commitment (Ashforth et al., 2008; Edwards, 2005; Tuškej et al., 2013). Brand identification and brand commitment are closely related but distinct constructs. Specifically, organisational behaviour and marketing literature contain mounting evidence that identification and commitment are conceptually and empirically distinct constructs (Ashforth et al., 2008; Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Brown et al., 2005; Edwards, 2005; Tuškej et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2012). Brand commitment refers to an emotional attachment or binding of an individual to a brand within a product class i.e. this brand is the only acceptable choice within such a product class (Warrington & Shim, 2000: 764). Whereas brand identification reflects the psychological oneness with the brand, necessarily implicating one's self-concept, brand commitment represents a positive attitude toward the brand while the individual and the brand remain distinct entities (Ashforth et al., 2008; Tuškej et al., 2013; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Specifically, CBI develops mainly because of the brand's relevance and importance to one's self concept (identity basis), while commitment is seen as contingent upon the "exchange-based factors, that is the (material) relationship" (Van Dick et al., 2004: 186) between the consumer and the brand. This emphasis on self-definition versus social exchange is the most fundamental difference between identification and commitment (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006: 574). Additionally, brand identification includes an evaluative aspect (i.e. personal and social value derived from being associated with the brand) that commitment does not capture (Homburg et al., 2009; Lam et al., 2010). In line with these conceptual differences, research proposes that identification is related to variables that suggest a coherent, distinctive, prestigious and attractive brand identity (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Dutton et al., 1994). In contrast, commitment is associated with attitudinal factors such as satisfaction that may contribute to a positive attitude toward the brand (Ashforth et al., 2008; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Moreover, Riketta's (2005) meta-analysis demonstrated that identification and commitment lead to different results regarding the consequences. For instance, it was found that identification is more strongly related to extra-role behaviour compared to commitment.

4.4.3 CBI and Self-Brand Connection

Self-brand connection is defined as “the extent to which individuals have incorporated brands into their self-concept” (Escalas & Bettman, 2003: 340). It is formed through a comparison process between brands’ associations (such as user characteristics, personality traits) and consumers’ self-concept to determine the ones that maximise similarity to their self-concepts, and then incorporate them into their self-concepts (Chaplin & John, 2005). By incorporating the brand as part of the self, a link is developed between the brand and the consumer (Park et al., 2010). Self-brand connection, which is a purely cognitive construct as shown in Escalas and Bettman’s self-brand connection measure (Papista & Dimitriadis, 2012), indicates the degree to which the brand contributes to and expresses one’s identity (Fournier, 1998). Self-brand connection has been considered as a dimension of brand attachment (Park et al., 2010), brand relationship quality (Fournier, 1998) and as a unidimensional cognitive construct (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). The cognitive dimension of CBI shares some conceptual resemblance to self-brand connection where both concepts refer to the brand’s ability to express a significant aspect of the consumer’s self and are theoretically and empirically associated with marketing-relevant consumption behaviours, such as brand loyalty and positive word of mouth (Brown et al., 2005). Thus, the cognitive component of CBI converges somewhat with self-brand connection construct.

However, self-brand connection and CBI are regarded as distinct constructs because they differ on fundamental grounds. First, CBI includes a self-definitional and an emotional meaning and value to the individual (Homburg et al., 2009; Lam et al., 2010), while self-brand connection does not reflect such affective and evaluative aspects. Second, people's identification with a brand is based on the totality or gestalt of the brand's identity (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003), rather than the far more constrained perception of a brand's associations such as reference groups and personality attributes (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). Third, cognitive identification is concerned with one's actual self-concept, whereas self-brand connection is contingent upon reflecting one's current or desired self-concept.

4.4.4 CBI and Brand Relationship Quality

The brand relationship quality (BRQ) construct is a consumer-based indicator of the quality, strength and depth of consumer-brand relationships (Fournier, 1998). Fournier (1998), drawing on the human relationship context, conceptualised the BRQ construct to include affective attachment (passion and self-connection), behavioural ties (interdependence and commitment), and cognitive beliefs (intimacy and brand partner quality). Although both constructs involve emotions, they differ in the nature and the reason of emotions they implicate. BRQ includes passion which reflects intense feelings toward the brand varying from warmth and affection to obsessive dependency (Kressmann et al., 2006; Thomson et al., 2005), in contrast, brand identification involves emotions (e.g. happy, glad, ashamed, or embarrassed) triggered by one's evaluations to his or her association with the brand or as a response to others evaluations of the brand. Unlike BRQ, which involves behavioural ties as an integral part of the construct, behaviour is not considered a dimension of the identification construct. Indeed, as Ashforth et al. (2008) argued, identification can positively influence in-role and extra-role behaviour, thereby serving as an outcome of brand identification. Whereas BRQ construct comprises cognitive beliefs regarding the quality of the brand and the reliability of the brand's messages (Kressmann et al., 2006), brand identification involves a cognitive association with the brand determined by the brand's relevance and importance to one's self-concept. In line with these conceptual differences, previous studies provided empirical evidence that brand identification and dimensions of BRQ construct are empirically distinct. Specifically, Lam et al. (2012) found that perceived quality, which is a very similar construct to partner quality, positively influences CBI. Moreover, it was found that CBI positively affects commitment (Albert et al., 2013; Tuškej et al., 2013) and passion (Albert et al., 2013).

4.4.5 CBI and Brand Attachment

Brand attachment is defined as "the strength of the bond connecting the brand with the self" (Park et al., 2010: 2). Park et al. (2010) identified two dimensions of brand attachment: (1) brand-self connection, which refers to the cognitive and emotional link between the consumer and the brand and (2) band prominence, which reflects the perceived ease and frequency with which thoughts and feelings about the brand are brought to mind. Both brand identification and brand attachment are psychological constructs that reference a brand and both have implications on important marketing outcomes such as brand loyalty and positive word of mouth. However, both constructs are different in several respects. First, strong brand attachments develop over time (Park et al., 2010) and are often based on interactions between the consumer and the brand (Thomson et al., 2005). In contrast, brand identification need not be time dependent. Brand identification can be developed without previous usage of the brand (Lam et al., 2010). Second, brand identification includes an evaluative component (i.e. how does a consumer and others evaluate his or her association with a specific brand) that is not captured by the brand attachment construct. Third, although brand identification shares some conceptual similarity with brand attachment where brand attachment includes brand-self connection, which is somewhat similar to cognitive identification, the cognitive dimension of the CBI construct reflects only the cognitive self-definition connection with the brand separate from the emotional dimension. In contrast, Park et al. (2010) proposed that brand-self connection captures both the cognitive and the affective bond to the brand. Furthermore, according to Park et al. (2010), brand-self connection is a function of identity motives (i.e. reflect who you are) or instrumental reasons (goals, personal concerns or life projects). In line with social identity theory, the identification construct is concerned with the former reason only. In other words, the consumer does not identify with the brand unless he or she acknowledges it as self-defining in some respect (Ashmore et al., 2004).

4.4.6 CBI and Emotional Brand Attachment

Thomson et al. (2005) conceptualised emotional brand attachment as a second order construct comprised of three first order factors: affection (included the emotional items “affectionate,” “loved,” “friendly,” and “peaceful”), (2) passion (included the items “passionate,” “delighted,” and “captivated”), and (3) connection (included the items “connected,” “bonded,” and “attached”). Although consumers who strongly identify with a brand are likely to have emotional significance towards that brand, the affective identification dimension differs from emotional brand attachment in several ways. First, the affective identification dimension reflects primarily the strength of the emotional connectedness and attachment towards a brand rather than specific emotions that arouse from being attached to a specific brand. Second, the CBI construct includes a self-defining cognitive component and an evaluative component that are not captured by the emotional attachment construct.

4.4.7 CBI and Self-Image Congruence

CBI and self-image congruence are conceptually and empirically distinct constructs (Lam et al., 2012). First, it is well acknowledged in the marketing literature that consumers buy brands not only for their functional utility, but also for their personal and social meanings (Levy, 1959; Sirgy, 1982). Prior organisational identification research (Dutton et al., 1994; Pratt, 1998) suggested that self-continuity need is a key driver for individuals’ identification with organisations, not only because it allows people to process and understand information easily but also because it provides easy opportunities to express themselves. In line with this reasoning, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) in their conceptual model proposed that identity similarity, which is a very similar construct to self-congruity, is one of the antecedents of consumer identification. Second, previous studies indicated that self-congruence positively affects CBI (e.g. Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012).

Thus, it has been found empirically that self-congruence is a driver of CBI. Finally, Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) asserted that it is important to differentiate between the notion of identification as a cognitive process of self-categorisation and the perceived overlap between personal and organisation attributes. Moreover, Lam et al. (2012) argued that the CBI construct is more comprehensive than the self-congruence construct where it goes beyond the cognitive similarity between one's self concept and the brand to include the emotional and evaluative aspects of psychological belongingness to the brand.

4.4.8 CBI and Brand Affect

Brand affect refers to "a brand's potential to elicit a positive emotional response in the average consumer as a result of its use" (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 82). Following Dahl (1977), Sung and Kim (2010) argued that "it" emotions (e.g. Brand X is exciting) should be considered differently from "me" emotions (e.g. I am excited) where the former are directed toward others while the latter are feelings in subjects themselves. Both brand affect and CBI have the potential to elicit consumers' emotions (i.e. me-emotion) such as being pleased, happy, good, glad, or proud. However, both constructs differ in several respects. First, with brand affect, emotions arise as a result of brand usage. With regard to CBI, emotions arise either as a consequence of consumers' association with the brand or as a response to others evaluations of the brand. Second, consumers may identify with a brand without actual previous usage (e.g. luxury brands) (Lam et al., 2010), thus, prior usage is not a function of identification. Third, the CBI construct comprises a self-defining cognitive dimension which is not captured by the brand affect construct.

4.4.9 CBI and Value Congruence

Value congruence refers to the similarity between the consumer's personal values and his or her perceptions of the brand values (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Zhang & Bloemer, 2008). First, in terms of conceptualisation, value congruence emerges when a consumer perceives that the brand values overlap with his or her personal values. That is, the values of the individual and the brand are similar or congruent. However, CBI reflects a psychological state whereby consumers perceive, feel and value their connectedness with a specific brand (Lam et al., 2010). Following Kelman (1958), O'Reilly III & Chatman (1986) hypothesised that an individual's psychological attachment to an organisation may occur in three distinct ways: (a) compliance or instrumental involvement, (b) identification or the desire for affiliation, and (c) internalisation or value congruence. More specifically, individuals who identify with an organisation may feel proud to be part of the group, respect the group's values and accomplishments without adopting the group's values as their own values. Second, from a nomological validity perspective, Tuškej et al. (2013) found that value congruence has a positive influence on brand identification. Moreover, O'Reilly III and Chatman (1986) found that identification is positively related to participation in the organisation and extra role behaviour but not to financial contributions, while value congruence positively influences extra role behaviour and financial contributions but not participation in the organisation. This shows that identification and value congruence lead to different outcomes.

4.4.10 CBI and Brand Attitude

Attitudes are general evaluations of a psychological object captured along dimensions such as good-bad, pleasant-unpleasant, and likable-dislikeable (Ajzen, 2001) influenced by beliefs (Fishbein & Middlestad, 1995), feelings (Zajonc, 1980), or both cognition and affect (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Although CBI includes an evaluative component, the entity to which judgement applies differs. Regarding brand attitude, evaluations reference the brand as a target of judgement (e.g. I like brand X, Brand X is good). With identification, what is evaluated is one's self-concept as a consequence of his or her association with a specific brand (e.g. I feel happy to be associated with brand X, My association with brand X improves the way others view me). Specifically, the evaluative dimension is based on how one evaluates his or her psychological association with the brand and how he or she perceives others evaluate it (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992; Sellers et al., 1997). That is, brand identification allows consumers to express their self-concept and through positive brand appraisal personally or socially they gain a positive self- appraisal (Homburg et al., 2009). It should be noted that in brand attitude the items are evaluating the brand itself rather than the subject (i.e. consumer). This distinction is important in order to understand the difference between brand attitude and the evaluative component in CBI. Further, consumers can hold favourable evaluations toward a variety of consumption objects regardless of their importance and salience to their lives (Thomson et al., 2005).

However, identification is selective where consumers are more likely to identify with particular brands that satisfy one or more of their self-definitional needs (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003).

4.4.11 CBI and Brand Trust

Brand trust is defined as "the willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function" (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 82). Brand identification and brand trust are conceptually distinct constructs (Lam et al., 2010). First, individuals who strongly identify with a brand have a clear stake in the success of the brand driven by their key self-definitional needs, and thus will be committed to preserving their relationship with the brand and motivated to engage in favourable behaviours on behalf of the company (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). In contrast, this is not necessarily a characteristic of brand trust. A consumer who only trusts a brand is unlikely to stay committed to it and may be willing to replace the brand with another that has equally desirable characteristics such as safety, honesty and reliability. Second, consumers can trust any number of brands that have little centrality or importance to their self-concept, however, the brands to which consumers identify with are few and are regarded as central to their social identity (Lam et al., 2010). Finally, brand identification comprises a self-definitional and an affective meaning and value to the individual (Homburg et al., 2009; Lam et al., 2010), while brand trust involves a well thought "calculative process" based on the brand's ability to continue to meet its obligations (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 82).

4.5 Summary

Driven by research gaps in the consumer identification literature, an initial theoretically grounded definition of consumer-brand identification construct was developed which provided a preliminary conceptualisation of the construct's underlying dimensions. Moreover, the conceptual distinction between consumer-brand identification and similar constructs was clarified. This lays the foundation for the remaining of research questions concerned with developing a reliable, valid and parsimonious scale for consumer-brand identification construct. The next chapter presents a conceptual model aiming to fill the research gaps identified in Chapter Three. In addition, the proposed conceptual model provides a means to further examine the nomological position of consumer-brand identification construct.

CHAPTER FIVE
CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

5.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to present a conceptual model of the relationships between CBI and a number of potential antecedents and consequences. It also provides a means of anchoring the nomological position of the CBI construct. The chapter is organised as follows. First, an overview of the conceptual model to be empirically tested in this research is provided, which helps to give an idea of the hypotheses that are discussed in later sections of this chapter. The next section provides an overview of the proposed antecedents and consequences, which provides a basis for understanding the focal constructs. Attention then turns towards developing the rationale underlying the hypotheses included in the conceptual model. Figure 5.1 shows the structure of the chapter.

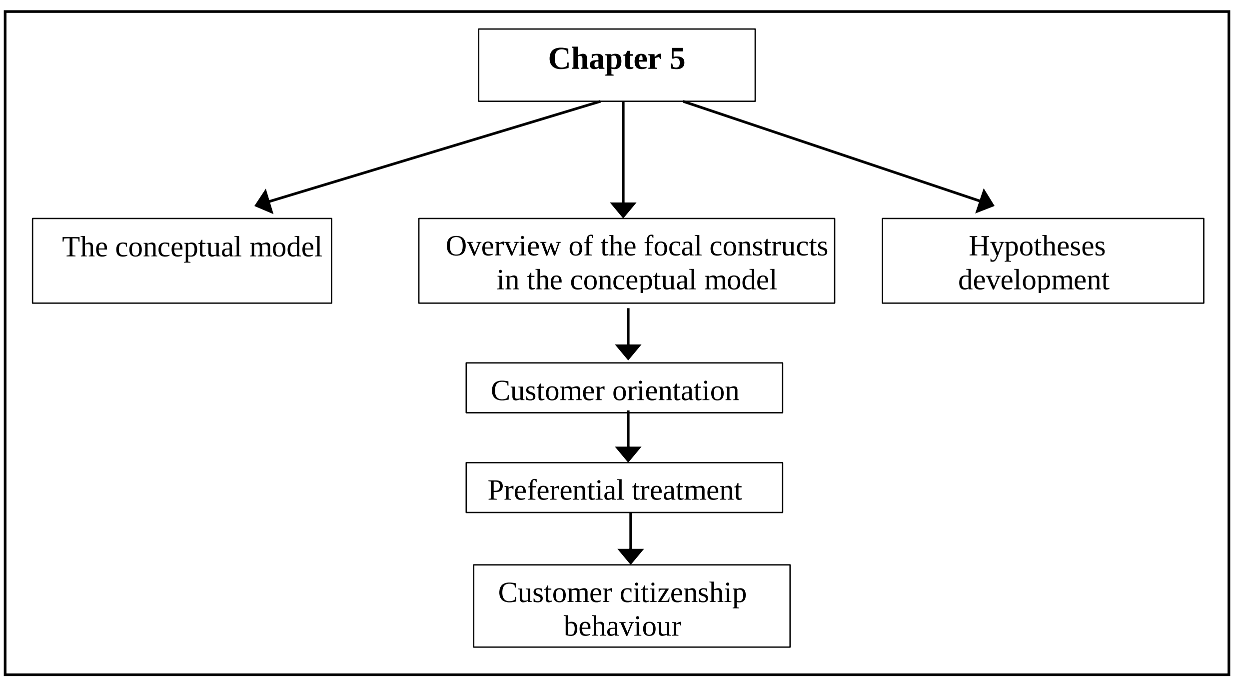


Figure 5.1 Structure of Chapter Five

5.2 The Conceptual Model

The conceptual model (Figure 5.2) explicates the potential antecedents and consequences of CBI. The model draws on theories of social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), self-categorisation (Turner et al., 1987), together with ideas from marketing studies of consumer identification (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; De Wulf et al., 2001; Homburg et al., 2009). The model postulates that customer orientation, customised preferential treatment, and economic preferential treatment influence CBI directly. CBI in turn influences customer citizenship behaviour (i.e. cooperation, participation, and helping other customers). It is worth to note that CBI is a reflective second-order construct with three reflective first-order dimensions. Table 5.1 summarises the previous key studies addressing the focal variables examined in the conceptual model. A summary of the study context, variable(s) examined, and key findings are outlined in Table 5.1.

5.3 An Overview of the Focal Constructs in the Conceptual Model

Individuals identify with particular companies and brands that represent attractive and meaningful social identities and partially fulfill their fundamental self-definitional needs (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). Among the key self-definitional needs (i.e. self-consistency, self-distinctiveness, and self-enhancement), this research focused on the determinants of CBI that help to satisfy consumers' need of self-enhancement in the service context. Little attention has been devoted to variables associated with the company's employees and/or the relationship marketing tactics employed by the company that are likely to fulfil consumers' self-enhancement needs (more details are provided in Chapter 3).

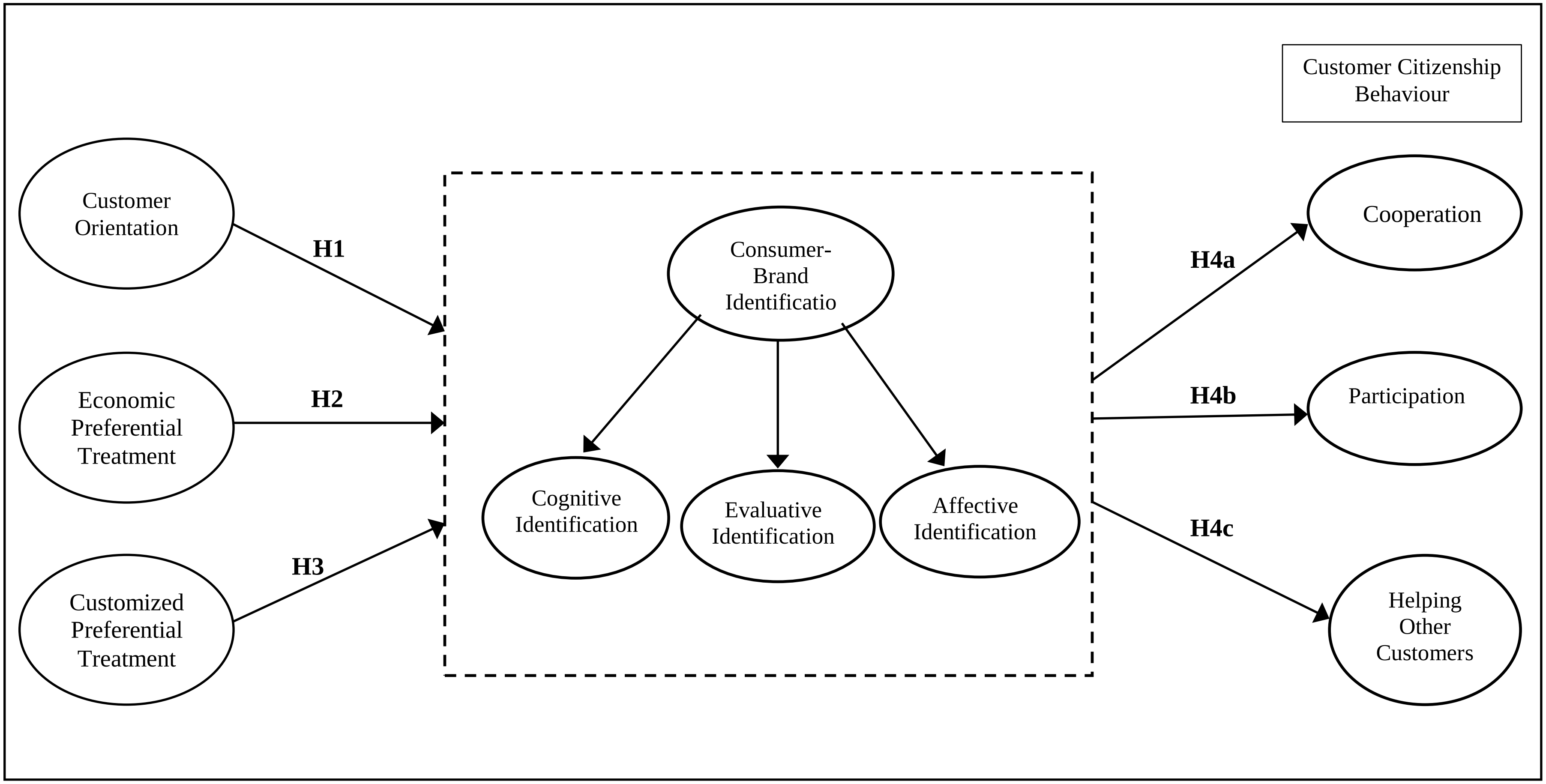


Figure 5.2 The Conceptual Model

Based on the literature, three variables (customer orientation, customised preferential treatment, and economic preferential treatment) are proposed as drivers of CBI.

5.3.1 Customer Orientation

The marketing concept has become a cornerstone in the marketing literature (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). Researchers have studied the marketing concept at both the organisational and the individual levels (Donavan et al., 2004). The research at the organisational level has focused on the broader concept of market orientation (e.g. Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990), referring to “the organisationwide generation, dissemination, and responsiveness to market intelligence” (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993: 3). In a similar vein, Narver and Slater (1990: 21) defined market orientation as “the organisation culture that most effectively and efficiently creates the necessary behaviours for the creation of superior value for buyers and, thus, continuous superior performance for the business". The importance of developing a market orientation culture within an organisation has been emphasised in the marketing literature. Specifically, empirical studies reported the positive outcomes that emerge from market orientation including employee commitment (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993) and increased profitability (Narver & Slater, 1990).

At the individual level, the research has focused on the customer orientation of individual employees, especially sales people (Homburg et al., 2011). As boundary spanners, the company’s attitude toward customers is reflected in their employees conduct and behaviour (Schwepker, 2003). Service organisations that have employees who engage in customer oriented behaviour are more likely to develop long-term relationships with customers and consequently achieve long term success for their companies (Donavan et al., 2004; Schwepker, 2003). Customer orientation is considered a component of the larger construct market orientation, which also involves competitor orientation (i.e. focus on competitors) and interfunctional coordination (i.e. coordinated use of company resources) (Narver & Slater, 1990). Customer orientation at the individual level has been widely examined in the personal selling literature (e.g. Saxe & Weitz, 1982) and the services marketing literature (e.g. Brady & Cronin, 2001; Brown et al., 2002).

Much of the research on customer orientation can be traced to a seminal article by Saxe and Weitz (1982), who brought the concept of salespeople customer orientation to the forefront in the marketing literature (Schwepker, 2003) to oppose the prevalent salespeople selling orientation (Homburg et al., 2011). Saxe and Weitz (1982: 344) proposed that customer orientation is a behavioural construct and defined as “the degree to which salespeople practice the marketing concept by trying to help their customers make purchase decisions that will satisfy customer needs”. That is, service employees play a critical role in the implementation of the marketing concept in service firms (Donavan et al., 2004). Customer-orientated behaviours such as the desire to help customers achieve their goals, helping customers assess their needs, offering and describing products that will help customers’ satisfy their needs, and avoiding the use of high pressure selling (Saxe & Weitz, 1982: 152), represents an avenue to build strong and enduring relationships with customers (Homburg et al., 2011; Schwepker, 2003). Establishing an organisational culture rooted in a set of values and beliefs that reinforce such customer behaviours results in positive customer perceptions and, ultimately, favourable attitudinal and behavioural outcomes toward the company (Brady & Cronin, 2001). That is, customer orientation can be viewed as an important part of the organisational culture that provides guidance to employees in terms of favourable behaviour.

Despite the customer-centred philosophy of customer orientation, most research examined customer orientation from the employees' perspective rather than the customers' perspective (Dean, 2007; Mulyanegara, 2010). However, Webb et al. (2000: 102) argued that "the adoption of the employee-defined view of market orientation is one-sided and myopic in that it ignores the vital role of customers in terms of value recognition". In support of this, Deshpandé et al. (1993: 27) asserted that "the evaluation of how customer oriented an organisation is should come from its customers rather than merely from the company itself". In a service setting, due to the intangible and interactive nature of services, a customer-oriented culture is primarily recognised by the conduct and behaviour of the service employees (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Hennig-Thurau, 2004). In summary, the concept of customer orientation, which puts the customers' interests at first, plays a crucial role in the long-term success of service companies. It is the service setting in which the customer orientation construct is addressed, at the individual level, from the customers' perspective. Thus, consistent with Dean (2007), customer orientation is defined as the extent to which customers perceive that the employees' behaviours aim at meeting their needs and helping them make satisfactory decisions.

5.3.2 Preferential Treatment

In a competitive landscape where companies may be offering comparable products and imitating competitors' price promotions, developing and implementing relationship efforts has been deemed as a means for gaining competitive advantage (De Wulf & Odekerken-Schröder, 2003). A relationship effort refers to "any effort that is actively made by a retailer towards a consumer that is intended to contribute to the consumer's perceived customer value above and beyond the core product and/ or service efforts received" (De Wulf & Odekerken-Schröder, 2003: 96). A relationship effort may serve as a signal that the service company is not only concerned about the company's profit, but also the interests of customers who engage in long-term relationship (Cho, 2006). As previously stated, one of the prevalent types of relationship efforts employed by companies is providing preferential treatment to selected customers (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002). Specifically, preferential treatment holds potential for building, maintaining and enhancing long-term relationships with customers (Lacey et al., 2007; Molina et al., 2007). The notion of preferential treatment is considered consistent with the relationship marketing perspective as it involves selecting customers and treating them differently (Lacey et al., 2007).

Preferential treatment refers to "the practice of giving selective customers' elevated social status recognition and/or additional or enhanced products and services above and beyond standard firm value propositions and customer service practices" (Lacey et al., 2007: 242). Consequently, customers are classified into different tiers with different service offers where the top tier includes the most influential customers and the bottom tiers comprises the least influential customers (Varela-Neira et al., 2010). Gwinner et al. (1998), in an exploratory study of relational benefits received by customers across a variety of different types of services, found that preferential treatment could be classified into two types: economic and customised.

The economic preferential treatment refers to monetary advantages and /or time savings that customers receive from engaging in relationships with service providers (Gwinner et al., 1998). Common examples of economic preferential treatment include complimentary product and service upgrades, gift certificates, discounts (Lacey et al., 2007), frequent flyer programs, and personalised coupons (Odekerken-Schröder et al., 2003). On the other hand, customised preferential treatment refers to customers' perceptions of extra attention, personal recognition, or special services not available to other customers (Gwinner et al., 1998). Customised preferential treatment might include customised products, access to dedicated customer service personnel, first access to new product shipments, advanced sales notices, private tours, and invitations to special events (Lacey et al., 2007). Preferential treatment, whether economic or customised, can represent a significant barrier to considering alternative service providers (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002). However, unlike economic preferential treatment, customised benefits cannot be easily imitated by competitors and thus hold the potential for sustained competitive advantage (Berry, 1995). Similarly, De Wulf et al. (2001) classified tangible rewards, which are akin to economic preferential treatment, as level one relationship marketing, whereas customised preferential treatment as level two relationship marketing. De Wulf et al. (2001) argued that level one relationship marketing is considered the weakest level because competitors can easily copy it.

Author	Context	Variable (s) Examined	Key Findings
Customer Orientation			
Williams (1998)	Organisational buyers.	Customer orientation and relationship development.	Customer orientation was found to be a strong and significant predictor of relationship development.
Brady & Cronin (2001)	Express auto lubrication centres, video rental store, and amusement parks.	Customer orientation, service performance, psychical goods quality, servicescape quality, overall service quality, satisfaction, value, and behavioural outcomes.	Customer orientation was directly related to customers' evaluations of employee service performance, physical goods, and servicescapes. Customer orientation was found to be indirectly related to overall service quality, satisfaction, value, and behavioural outcomes.
Schwepker (2003)	Conceptual paper.	Customer oriented selling and customer trust.	A positive relationship between customer-oriented selling and customer trust was proposed but not empirically tested.
Hennig-Thurau (2004)	Travel agencies and retailers of media products.	Customer orientation, satisfaction, emotional commitment, and customer retention.	Customer orientation was found to significantly impact customer satisfaction and emotional commitment. However, customer orientation positively affected customer retention in media retailing sample only.
Stock & Hoyer (2005)	Industrial goods sector and services sector.	Salespeople customer orientation and customer satisfaction.	Customer orientation had a positive impact on customer satisfaction.
Macintosh (2007)	Travel agencies.	Customer orientation, relationship quality, expertise, satisfaction with the firm, loyalty to the firm and word of mouth.	Customer orientation positively influenced relationship quality, which in turn enhanced customer satisfaction with the service firm, loyalty to the firm and positive word-of-mouth about the firm.
Guenzi & Georges (2010)	The financial services industry.	Customer orientation, selling orientation salesperson's expertise, trust in salesperson, intentions to recommend, intentions to rebuy/cross-buy and intentions to switch.	Customer orientation and expertise positively influenced customer trust in the salesperson which positively affected customer's intentions to re-buy/cross-buy and to recommend.

Author	Context	Variable (s) Examined	Key Findings
Singh & Koshy (2011)	Small and medium sized firms covering diverse industries and product categories.	Customer orientation, selling orientation, value creation, relationship development, and customer satisfaction.	Customer orientation was found to influence value creation and relationship development. Selling orientation destroys value, although it may affect relationship development in the short-term. Customer satisfaction was unrelated to both types of orientations.
Preferential Treatment			
De Wulf et al. (2001)	Food and apparel Industries.	Direct mail, preferential treatment, interpersonal communication, tangible rewards, relationship investment, relationship quality, and behavioural loyalty.	Different relationship marketing tactics had a differential impact on relationship investment. Relationship investment positively influenced relationship quality, leading to behavioural loyalty.
Hennig-Thurau et al. (2002)	Bowen's (1990) three service categories.	Special treatment benefits, satisfaction, commitment, word of mouth, and customer loyalty.	Preferential treatment had no significant impact on both loyalty and satisfaction. However, it positively influenced commitment.
De Wulf & Odekerken-Schröder (2003)	Retail clothing stores in Belgium & Netherlands.	Direct mail, preferential treatment, tangible rewards, trust, relationship commitment and behavioural loyalty.	Preferential treatment and direct mail had a positive impact on trust in only one country. Tangible rewards positively influenced trust in both samples. Trust had a positive impact on relationship commitment, which in turn influenced loyalty.
Odekerken-Schröder et al. (2003)	Beauty shops and cosmetic departments of department stores.	Communication, preferential treatment, reward, personalisation, retention orientation, trust, satisfaction, commitment and buying behaviour.	Rewarding and personalisation positively influenced retention orientation. Communication had no impact on retention orientation whereas preferential treatment had a negative impact on retention orientation.

Author	Context	Variable (s) Examined	Key Findings
Chen et al. (2007)	International airline industry.	Preferential treatment, tangible rewards, institutional based trust, and functional relationship value.	Preferential treatment and tangible rewards were the dominant antecedents of institutional-based trust which positively influenced functional relationship value.
Lacey et al. (2007)	Department store chain.	Preferential treatment, increased purchases, relationship commitment, share of customer, word of mouth, and customer feedback.	It was found that higher levels of preferential treatment positively influence increased purchases, relationship commitment, share of customer, WOM, and customer feedback.
Customer Citizenship Behaviour			
Bettencourt (1997)	Grocery stores.	Customer satisfaction, customer commitment, perceived support for customers, loyalty, cooperation, and participation.	Customer commitment had a positive impact on both loyalty and participation, however, it was found that no relationship exists between commitment and cooperation. There was no relation between satisfaction and both loyalty and cooperation behaviours. It was found that satisfaction is significantly related to participation.
Keh &d Teo (2001)	Conceptual paper.	Customer satisfaction, customer commitment, perceived support for customers, customer cooperation, customer loyalty, customer participation, and customer tolerance.	It was proposed that customer satisfaction, customer commitment, perceived support for customers are positively related to customer cooperation, customer loyalty, and customer tolerance and negatively related to customer participation.
Groth (2005)	Internet service deliveries.	Customer satisfaction, customer socialisation, and customer citizenship behaviour.	It was found that customer satisfaction is strongly related to customer citizenship behaviour compared to customer socialisation.

Author	Context	Variable (s) Examined	Key Findings
Rosenbaum & Massiah (2007)	Gold's Gym.	Social emotional support from other customer, instrumental support from other customers, participation, cooperation, and loyalty.	Social emotional support and instrumental support were found as significant predictors of participation and cooperation. However, social emotional support was found as the only predictor of customer loyalty.
Yi & Gong (2008)	Study1: Universities. Study 2: Buyer firms of raw material used for manufacturing.	Positive affect and customer citizenship behaviour.	A positive relationship between positive affect and customer citizenship behaviour was found to be significant in both studies.
Bove et al. (2009)	Pharmacy, hairdressing and medical services.	Commitment to service worker, credibility and benevolence of service worker, personal loyalty to the service worker, and customer citizenship behaviours.	It was found that commitment and loyalty to the service worker, benevolence of service worker positively influence customer citizenship behaviour.
Johnson & Rapp (2010)	Study (1&2): Favourite profit and non-profit organisations. Study3: Arts centre.	Affective commitment, organisational identification, relationship strength, and customer helping behaviours.	Affective commitment, relationship strength, and organisational identification significantly influenced customer helping behaviours across samples.
Bartikowski & Walsh (2011)	Banking, retailing, and fast-food restaurants.	Customer-based corporate reputation, commitment, loyalty intentions, helping other customers, and helping the company.	Corporate reputation had a positive impact on helping other customers and helping the company. Significant and direct effects were found between commitment, loyalty and helping the company, however, their effects on helping other customers were nonsignifcant.

Table 5.1 Summary of Key Studies Investigating the Focal Constructs in the Conceptual Model

Although Gwinner et al. (1998) quantitative analysis showed that economic and customised benefits constitute one type of benefits, labelled as special treatment benefits, differentiating between both types of benefits should not be ignored. De Wulf et al. (2001) and Odekerken-Schröder et al. (2003) examined the differential effects of tangible rewards and preferential treatment on trust and customer retention orientation of the retailer, respectively. Moreover, Lacey et al. (2007) pointed out to the theoretical and practical importance of addressing the relative contribution of the specific types of preferential treatment. This research thus examines the differential impact of both types of preferential treatment on the extent to which consumers identify with a particular service brand.

5.3.3 Customer Citizenship Behaviours

The service marketing literature has recognised the critical role of customers in the service delivery process (Bettencourt, 1997; Groth, 2005; Yi et al., 2011). Service companies increasingly consider customers as partial employees and human resources of the organisation because of their direct involvement and contribution to the service delivery process. That is, customers increasingly perform tasks just like the firms' traditional employees (Bettencourt, 1997; Groth, 2005). The effective management of customers enhances the organisation's performance and gives the firm a potential source of competitive advantage (Keh & Teo, 2001). As with employees, customers can perform citizenship behaviour (Yi & Gong, 2008). As a consequent, organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) can be extended to the customer context. In the organisational behaviour literature, OCBs commonly refer to the "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that, in the aggregate, promotes the effective functioning of the organisation" (Organ, 1988: 4). There has been no consensus on the exact number of dimensions, however, several empirical studies conceptualised OCBs as comprising altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship courtesy, and civic virtue as OCBs dimensions (Bove et al., 2009).

There has been a growing interest in customer citizenship behaviours in the managerial and marketing studies (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005; Bove et al., 2009; Rosenbaum & Massiah, 2007; Yi & Gong, 2008; Yi et al., 2013). Consistent with OCBs, customer citizenship behaviours (CCBs) refer to "voluntary and discretionary behaviours that are not required for the successful production and delivery of the service but that, in the aggregate, help the service organisation overall" (Groth, 2005: 11). CCBs have three distinguishing features: (1) they are extra-role, outside of the customer's required role for service delivery, (2) they are discretionary and voluntary, and (3) they are intended to effective organisational functioning (Organ, 1988). A differentiating feature of CCBs from prosocial terms is the functionality to the organisation that is CCBs, in the aggregate, benefits the organisation (Bove et al., 2009). The labels used to describe CCBs in the literature include customer voluntary performance (Bettencourt, 1997), customer organisational citizenship behaviours (Bove et al., 2009), extra-role behaviour (Ahearne et al., 2005; Keh & Teo, 2001), and customer helping behaviour (Johnson & Rapp, 2010).

The literature proposed various dimensions of CCBs. Bettencourt (1997) suggested three dimensions of CCBs: loyalty, participation, and cooperation. Groth (2005) proposed three somewhat different dimensions: (1) recommendation, which is defined as making recommendations to the family, peers and friends, (2) providing feedback to the organisation, which refers to offering suggestions and information to the service organisation, and (3) helping other customers, which means assisting and helping other customers finding difficulty in using the service. Bove et al. (2009) identified eight dimensions of CCBs: positive word mouth, displays of relationship, affiliation, participations in firm's activities, benevolence acts of service facilitation, flexibility, suggestions for service improvements, voice, and policing of other customers. Johnson and Rapp (2010) proposed slightly eight different dimensions: expanding behaviours, supporting behaviours, forgiving behaviours, increasing quantity, competitive information, responding to research, displaying brands, and increasing price.

In summary, the exact number of dimensions of CCBs is not clear, however, the common dimensions adopted by previous studies are those proposed by Bettencourt (1997) and Groth (2005) (e.g. Bartikowski & Walsh, 2011; Rosenbaum & Massiah, 2007; Yi & Gong, 2008; Yi et al., 2013). It is worth to note that Groth's (2005) recommendation dimension closely parallels the loyalty dimension suggested by Bettencourt (1997). Moreover, providing feedback to the organisation, in part, taps Bettencourt's (1997) participation construct. While the importance of favourable word-of-mouth and recommendations is well acknowledged in the marketing literature (e.g. Parasuraman et al., 1988; Rust et al., 1995; Zeithaml et al., 1996), it has been widely examined in consumer identification literature (e.g. Bagozzi et al., 2012; Brown et al., 2005; Choo et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2001). The present study expands on Bettencourt's (1997) work by considering that customers may display citizenship behaviour toward other customers. In summary, this research suggests that CCBs entail customers voluntarily engaging in helping behaviours targeted at other customers or the service organisation, in the aggregate, intended to effective organisational functioning. Drawing on Bettencourt (1997) and Groth (2005), this research thus focused on examining three main customer citizenship behaviours: cooperation, participation, and helping other customers. The following section discusses each one in more details.

5.3.3.1 Cooperation

Cooperation refers to "discretionary customer behaviours indicating respect for the provision of quality service delivery" (Bettencourt, 1997: 386). Kelley et al. (1992) proposed that customers can contribute to service delivery in two ways, through customer technical quality and customer functional quality, just like employees. Customer technical quality refers to "what the service customer provides to the service encounter", whereas customer functional quality indicates "how the service customer behaves during the service encounter" (Kelley et al., 1992: 198). Behaviours like observing service procedures, cooperating with employees to make their job easier, and treating employees with respect and courtesy are examples of customer technical and functional quality, respectively (Bettencourt, 1997; Kelley et al., 1992). Cooperation behaviour in both forms, on part of the customer, may result in successful interactions between customers and employees and may have positive implications on other customers (Bettencourt, 1997; Keh & Teo, 2001). Moreover, due to the presence of customers during the service delivery process, they have also the opportunity to contribute to the service process beyond their immediate interaction with the service employee (Bettencourt, 1997; Rosenbaum & Massiah, 2007). For example, requests made by movie theatres may also require customers' cooperation, e.g. "Please put trash in its place" or "Turn off your mobile phones".

5.3.3.2 Participation

Participation refers to customer behaviours indicating active and responsible involvement in the development of the organisation's products and services (Bettencourt, 1997). Bettencourt (1997) argued that customers are an inexhaustible source of expertise with frequent presence during the service process and considerable range of experiences with the service. Fang (2008) suggested two forms of customer participation: co-developer, which refers to the involvement of customers in the development tasks, and information provider, which indicates information sharing with the company. Regardless of the potential benefits of customer participation as co-developers, companies face significant challenges to incorporate customers' efforts efficiently and effectively. Moreover, this role requires specific customers who have sufficient knowledge, expertise, skills, and time.

On the other hand, customers are in a unique position to contribute to the development and delivery of an organisation's products and services by offering suggestions and providing feedback to the organisation (Bettencourt, 1997). Sharing information with the company in the form of suggestions or feedback may lead the firm to take actions that can further enhance the product or service delivery (Keh & Teo, 2001). In other words, customer participation may help the organisation to recover existing service problems, expand current services or even introduce new products or services (Bettencourt, 1997; Plymire, 1991). For instance, L.L. Bean, a retailer that is specialised in outdoor clothing, introduced an entire new line of products in the early 90^{th} based on customers feedback and suggestions. Therefore, customer participation, as information providers, provides a potential source of competitive advantage for organisations. Based on the above discussion, this research focuses on customer participation as information providers.

5.3.3.3 Helping Other Customers

Groth (2005: 9) argued that customers are “a valuable source…..... (that) can help train other customers”. Helping other customers closely parallels the altruism dimension in organisational citizenship behaviour, which refers to discretionary behaviours that are intended to help a specific person in face-to-face situations (LePine et al., 2002; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Altruism behaviours include helping others who have been absent, volunteering for things that are not required, or orienting new people even though it is not required (LePine et al., 2002: 53). Customers are getting involved and integrated more and more in the service process and increasingly perform tasks that have been performed by service employees (Groth, 2005). For instance, customers now use ATMs to make deposits and withdrawals, self-check machines in grocery stores, or reserve airline tickets online. Customers may thus assume a role of helping other customers and providing practical help and assistance when other customers face difficulties (Bettencourt, 1997; Rosenbaum & Massiah, 2007).

5.4 Hypotheses Development

5.4.1 Customer Orientation and Consumer-Brand Identification

The interaction between frontline employees and customers plays a crucial role in the success of service organisations (Wieseke et al., 2007). Employees of service organisation are positioned as an external communicator of the organisation's identity that is largely controlled by the company (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Frontline employees, through their interactions with customers, can signal the quality, character, and values of the service company (Ahearne et al., 2005). Customer orientation emphasises the idea of putting the customer's interest first (Deshpandé7 et al., 1993) and taking actions aimed at ensuring long-term customer satisfaction (Saxe & Weitz, 1992). The customer's perception of high level of customer-oriented behaviour can thus create a positive image of the service organisation and result in more positive customer evaluations towards the company and the salesperson (Homburg et al., 2011).

The desire of employees to meet the customer needs and enhance customer satisfaction (Saxe & Weitz, 1982) provides the customer with feelings of being important and respected and thus partially fulfils one's self-enhancement needs. In other words, interactions with a service employee that are perceived as favourable makes it more likely that the customer considers the service company as a potential target for social identity fulfilment (Ahearne et al., 2005; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Homburg et al., 2009). Bhattacharya et al. (1995: 55) reinforced this view and stated that "a strong and often distinctive customer orientation (i.e. dedication to the customer) is a necessary condition for fostering identification". For instance, "an important part of Saturn's identity is that its customers be treated intelligently, with respect and like a friend" (Bhattacharya et al., 1995: 55). Moreover, it has been found that consumer orientation results in a number of positive marketing outcomes including customer satisfaction (Goff et al., 1997; Hennig-Thurau, 2004; Stock & Hoyer, 2005), perceived service quality (Dean, 2007), strong relationships with customers (Guenzi & Georges, 2010), customer loyalty (Dean, 2007), emotional commitment (Hennig-Thurau, 2004), customer retention (Hennig-Thurau, 2004), and interpersonal relationship quality (Macintosh, 2007). Thus, it is proposed that consumers' identification with a particular service brand is influenced by the extent to which they perceive higher levels of customer-oriented employees.

Hypothesis 1: *Customer orientation is positively related to CBI.*

5.4.2 Economic Preferential Treatment and Consumer-Brand Identification

Consumer-brand relationship based on identification is a selective and volitional act on the part of the consumers and cannot be imposed by companies (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Individuals will feel the necessary motivational impulse to begin a psychological attachment to the organisation when they perceive that the organisation partially fulfil their self-enhancement needs (Currás-Pérez et al., 2009; Dutton et al., 1994). The influence of economic preferential treatment on CBI is thus attributed to the self-esteem hypothesis, one of the main tenets of social identity theory, which indicates that individuals identify with a social category that enhances their self-esteem (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Economic preferential treatment refers to a consumer's perception of the extent to which a service company offers monetary advantages and /or time savings to its regular customers (De Wulf et al., 2001; Gwinner et al., 1998; Odekerken-Schröder et al., 2003). Consumers are likely to perceive such preferential treatment as being special, important and appreciated, and thus enhances their self-esteem (Lacey et al., 2007).

Cardador and Pratt (2006) proposed that when organisations provide customers with financial benefits such as coupons and free samples, they are more likely to identify with the organisation. Bhattacharya et al. (1995) contended that getting quicker service enhances the individuals' sense of belongingness to the organisation. For instance, "the Grateful Dead, one of the sharpest business operations in popular music, have information hot lines and an in-house mail-order service that enables their fans to buy tickets without waiting at a box office" (Bhattacharya et al., 1995: 55). In one study, Camarero and Garrido (2011) surveyed museum members and found that tangible benefits positively influence the extent to which individuals' identify with the museum. In the organisational context, Blader and Tyler (2009) found that positive evaluations of economic benefits (such as pay, incentives) are associated with higher levels of identification. Moreover, a number of studies examined the relationship between tangible rewards on a number of positive outcomes. For example, Odekerken-Schröder et al. (2003) found that rewarding consumers financially has a positive impact on their perceptions of the retailer's customer retention orientation, which consequently influences relationship commitment and satisfaction. De Wulf et al. (2001) reported the influence of tangible rewards on perceived relationship investment. Following this reasoning, it is proposed that consumers' identification with a particular service brand is influenced by the extent to which they perceive higher levels of economic preferential treatment.

Hypothesis 2: *Economic preferential treatment is positively related to CBI.*

5.4.3 Customized Preferential Treatment and Consumer-Brand Identification

At the heart of the social identity theory is the intergroup social comparisons processes underpinned by individuals' motivation for self-enhancement (Hogg, 2000). Intergroup comparisons aim to differentiate the in-group from relevant out-groups in a favourable way and thus achieve the basic human need for positive self-esteem (Hogg, 2000). Specifically, Tajfel and Turner (1979: 40) proposed that "positive social identity is based to a large extent on favourable comparisons...between the in-group and some relevant out-groups". Whereas this proposition is related to comparisons between groups, it is also applicable to the individual level (Seta & Seta, 1996; Tyler & Blader, 2002). Individuals tend to compare themselves to relevant others (Lacey et al., 2007). Customised preferential treatment refers to "a consumer's perception of the extent to which a retailer (service company) treats and serves its regular customers better than its nonregular customers''(Odekerken-Schröder et al., 2003: 180). That is, the notion of customised preferential treatment involves recognising the special status of specific customers (Lacey et al., 2007). This distinctive treatment of selected customers is likely to be perceived as special recognition (Lacey et al., 20007) and helps service providers to fulfil the individual's fundamental need of being unique and important and thus enhances one's self-esteem (Varela-Neira et al., 2010). Consumers perceive preferential treatment as an indicator of their status within the service company. When individuals feel that they are of a higher status within the organisation compared to others, they are more likely to identify with that particular organisation driven by their self-enhancement needs (Tyler & Blader, 2002). That is, favourable intragroup comparison enhances one's positive sense of self (Seta & Seta, 1996).

Seta and Seta (1996) emphasised the importance of having a superior position within the social group and its influence on the extent to which individuals identify with social categories. Specifically, they found that individuals are less likely to identify with successful groups if they perceive their status within the group as inferior. That is, how individuals perceive their status and the extent to which they are valued and respected is likely to influence their sense of identification with the group. Similarly, Gruen et al. (2000) argued that recognition as an extrinsic reward for contributions positively influences affective commitment, which is a construct similar to identification. Hence, it is proposed that consumers' identification with a particular service brand is influenced by the extent to which they perceive higher levels of customised preferential treatment.

Hypothesis 3: *Customised preferential treatment is positively related to CBI.*

5.4.4 Consumer-Brand Identification and Customer Citizenship Behaviour

The social identity approach proposes that identification with a social group results in in-group favouritism and in-group-out-group favourable distinction (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Tajfel et al., 1971). Ahearne et al. (2005: 577) argued that "effort directed toward preserving, supporting, and improving the organisation proceeds naturally from identification". That is, the individual's social identification is likely to result in behaviours that benefit the organisation (Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Dukerich et al., 2002). Specifically, social identification and depersonalisation affect behaviours associated with group formation including intergroup cohesion, cooperation and altruism, collective action, and positive evaluations of the group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg et al., 1995). In the consumer context, this view was partially supported as previous research investigating the effect of consumer identification on customer citizenship behaviour reported mixed results. Some studies reported a significant impact of consumer identification on consumers' participation (Bagozzi et al., 2012; Choo et al., 2011; Tsai & Pai, 2013), feedback intentions (Hong et al., 2010), helping (Johnson et al., 2013), and extra-role behaviour (Ahearne et al., 2005; Karaosmanoğlu et al., 2011; Lii & Lee, 2012) whereas others showed that consumer identification is not related to consumer propensity to provide feedback to the organisation (Bagozzi et al., 2012) and participation (Casaló et al., 2010). Although some studies do not show a positive relationship between consumer identification and customer citizenship behaviour, it can be argued that the extent to which consumers' identity with a service brand is likely to result in customer citizenship behaviour for the following reasons.

First, building on social identity theory, a likely consequence of consumers' identification with a service brand may be seen in voluntary behaviour, on part of the consumers, targeted towards the benefit of the service organisation. Second, because CBI helps consumers satisfy their self-definitional motives and thus they have a vested interest in the success of this service brand (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003), consumers are more likely to support the organisation by engaging in citizenship behaviours (i.e.

extra-role behaviours) on behalf of the service organisation (Ahearne et al., 2005; Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Sen et al., 2009). In a sense, the consumers' desire to support the service brand they identify with leads individuals to go above and beyond the normal purchase behaviour (Sen et al., 2009) and engage in voluntary behaviour to help the company achieve its goals and objectives (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Third, it has been found in the organisational behaviour literature that employees who identify with the organisation are more likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour such as courtesy, altruism, and sportsmanship (e.g. Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). Given the often stated view that customer are partial employees during the service delivery (Groth, 2005), it is reasonable to argue that a similar relationship exists with customers. Accordingly, it is proposed that:

Hypothesis 4: *CBI is positively related to (a) CCBs: cooperation, (b) CCBs: participation, and (c) CCBs: helping other customers.*

The preceding hypotheses are summarised in Table 5.2.

H1: Customer orientation is positively related to CBI
H2: Economic preferential treatment is positively related to CBI.
H3: Customised preferential treatment is positively related to CBI.
H4: CBI is positively related to (a) CCBs: cooperation, (b) CCBs: participation, and (c) CCBs: helping other customers.

Table 5.2 A Summary of Hypotheses

5.5. Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the focal constructs in the conceptual model. Various theoretical arguments and empirical evidence governing the hypothesised relationships between the constructs in the conceptual model were also presented. Before proceeding to the empirical verification of the conceptual model developed in this chapter and the results of testing the hypothesised relationships, the methodology adopted in this research is discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER SIX
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapters outlined the preliminary consumer-brand identification (CBI) framework. Theoretical arguments and empirical evidence outlining the distinction between CBI and other related constructs were presented. The hypothesised relationships between CBI and potential antecedents and consequences were also developed. This chapter justifies and outlines the methodology employed for developing a valid and robust scale of CBI and empirically validating the proposed conceptual model. This chapter commences with a broad view of the philosophy of social science and its application to the current research, giving an indication of the positioning of the current study. This is followed by a discussion of the research design and the rationale behind the chosen design. Next, a description of the scale development process is outlined. The scale development process comprised three respective phases where each phase addresses different issues relating to the development and validation of the construct's scale. Phase one involved (a) the definition of the focal construct, (b) an initial item pool generation, and (c) content validity assessment. Phase two included two studies. This chapter provides a detailed discussion of the sampling process, product categories and brands selected, questionnaire design process, and quantitative data analyses techniques used in each study. The final part describes the third phase of the scale development process. The sampling process, research setting, questionnaire development process and the chosen data analyses methods of the third study are then detailed. The chapter ends with summary remarks. Figure 6.1 shows how the chapter is structured.

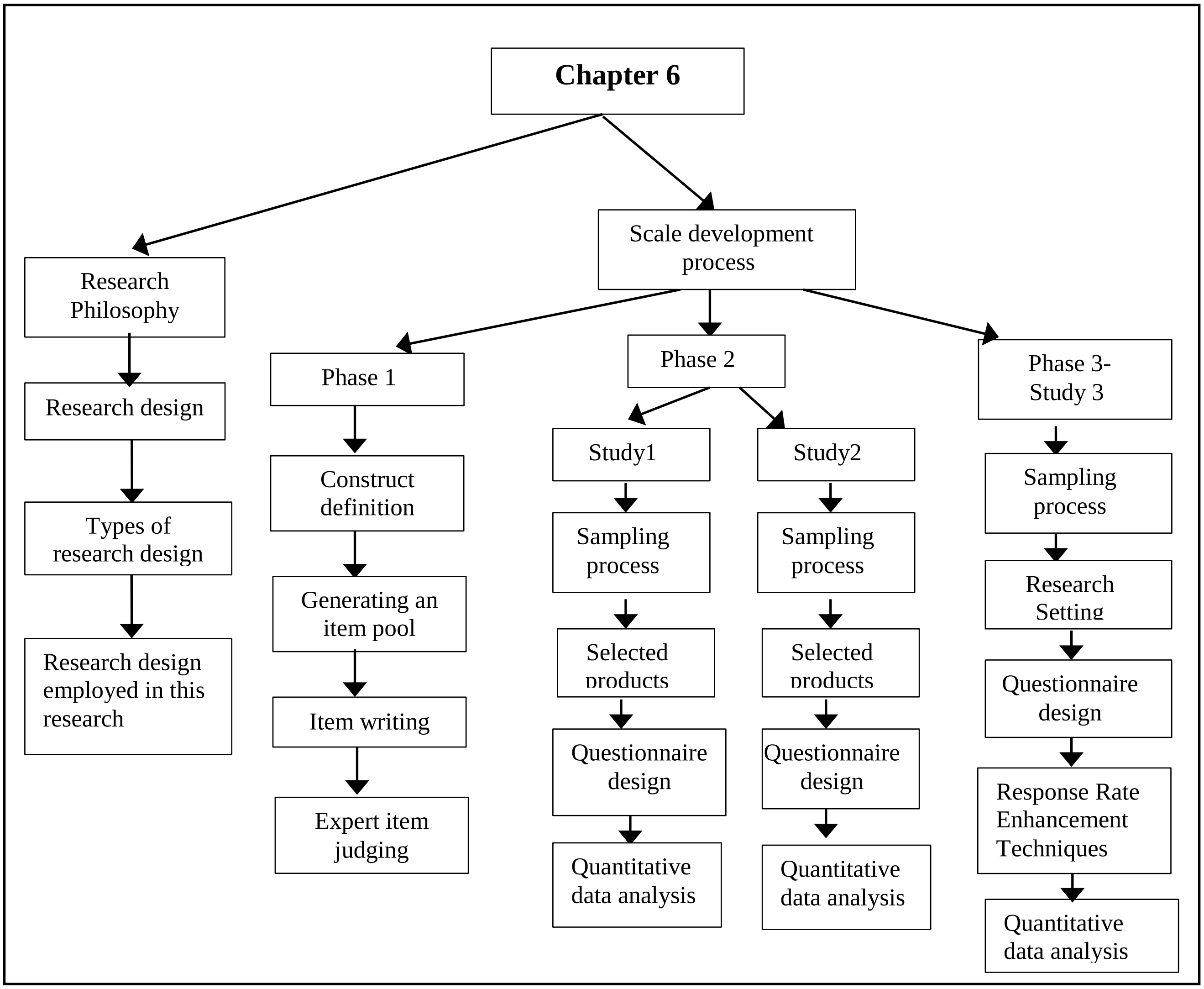


Figure 6.1 Structure of Chapter Six

6.2 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to the development of knowledge based on people's assumptions and beliefs about the nature of the social world and the way in which it may be investigated (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Saunders et al., 2007). The adopted research philosophy, also referred to as a paradigm or worldview (Creswell, 2009), includes important assumptions about the way in which the researcher views the world and essentially underpins the entire research strategy (Saunders et al., 2007). That is to say, the paradigm choice informs and guides the research inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) and underpins the research design and methodological decisions (Saunders et al., 2007). The basic philosophical assumptions and beliefs underlying each paradigm are related to three interconnected questions: what is the nature of reality (ontology); what is the nature of relationship between the knower and what can be known (epistemology); and how can the researcher go about finding whatever he or she believes can be known (methodology) (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Guba &Lincoln, 1994; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

Ontology is concerned with the nature of existence (Guba, 1990). The central questions ask whether the investigated reality is considered external to the individual, of an objective nature, and given out there in the world (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). According to Burrell and Morgan (1979), two different positions exist within ontology: Realism and Nominalism. Realism revolves around the assumption that the social reality is a concrete and objective world, external to the observer, and independent of an individual's interpretation. On the other hand, the nominalist position views the social reality as external to the individual and structured of names, labels and concepts constructed by social actors. In general, the individual's ontological assumptions will feed into how knowledge can be acquired i.e. epistemological assumptions (Guba &Lincoln, 1994). Saunders et al. (2007: 102) described epistemology as "what constitutes acceptable knowledge in the field of study". Similarly, Burrell and Morgan (1979) stated that epistemology is concerned with what forms of knowledge can be obtained and what is regarded as true and valid. Epistemology is also concerned with whether knowledge can be acquired or has to be personally experienced (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Both the ontological and epistemological assumptions "have direct implications of a methodological nature" (Burrell & Morgan, 1979: 2) i.e. how the researcher attempts to investigate and acquire knowledge about the social world (Guba, 1990).

According to Burrell and Morgan (1979), most social scientists can be located within the context of four paradigms: functionalist, interpretive, radical humanist and radical structuralist. The four paradigms can be analysed in terms of two key dimensions: the subjective-objective dimension, which is concerned with the assumptions about the nature of social science and the regulation-radical change dimension, which is concerned with the assumptions about the nature of the society. The radical humanist paradigm centres on a subjective view of reality rooted in the sociology of radical change. In line with the interpretivist perspective, this paradigm places central emphasis on human consciousness. Radical humanists believe that the social world can be changed through a change in modes of cognition and consciousness (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). On the other hand, the radical structuralist paradigm is rooted in the sociology of radical change from an objectivist point of view.

Theorists in this paradigm are committed to radical change from a realist standpoint and attempt to provide explanations of the basic interrelationships within a realist social world.

The interpretive paradigm theorists advocate the sociology of regulation from a subjective standpoint (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Interpretisvits believe that there exist multiple realties constructed in the mind of the individual and these realities are influenced by the individual’s experience, perceptions, memories and expectations (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988; Ponterotto, 2005). Interpretivists therefore see that the social world cannot be studied like the physical world and that the researchers must study the phenomena from the perspective of the social actors involved (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988). In addition, the interpretivist researcher’s goal is understanding or verstehen the subjectively created social world because it can never be proven (Shankar & Goulding, 2001). In their quest for obtaining an understanding of the social world, interpretivists delve into the depth of human consciousness and subjectivity (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The functionalist paradigm, on the other hand, is rooted in the sociology of regulation from an objective point of view (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Functionalism claims that there is a single concrete reality i.e. one truth independent of individuals' perceptions. To functionalists, knowledge is independent from the observer i.e. the observer is not part of the knowledge. Functionalists believe that the observer acquires knowledge without influencing it or being influenced by it and that the researcher should study the participant and the topic by following rigorous and standard procedures (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Ponterotto, 2005). In contrast, interpretivists tend to hold a subjectivist position that maintains that realities exist in the respondents' minds (Guba, 1990) and therefore the interdependence of the researcher and the participants is central to achieve one of the main goals of interpretivism which is understanding. Functionalist researchers apply the scientific approach to study the social world where the researcher emotions and values are detached from the phenomena under study. The main goal is to give the social science the ability to predict and control the social world as natural science (Corbetta, 2003; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Functionalist researchers favour quantitative research (such as surveys) as it deals with hard data such as numbers and statistics (Ponterotto, 2005). On the other hand, interpretivists, given their emphasis on the interaction between the researcher and the participants and being located in the natural setting in which the phenomena occurs, prefer qualitative research (such as in-depth face- to- face interview) which is concerned with soft data such as texts, words and impressions (Ponterotto, 2005).

The research question underlined in the introductory chapter suggests that this research takes the philosophical position of functionalism. More specifically, the fundamental aim of this research is to provide a theoretically grounded definition of CBI and develop a parsimonious, reliable and valid measure of the construct. The scale development literature (e.g. Churchill, 1979; Devellis, 2003; Gerbing &Anderson, 1988; Hinkin, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 2003) contends that in order to develop a reliable and valid scale, the scale development process should be analysed rigorously using empirical data. Through this process, items are generated and a conceptual model is developed to assess the content validity and the nomoligcal validity of the scale. According to Burrell and Morgan (1979: 26), the assumptions underlying the functionalist paradigm tend to be “realist, positivist, and nomothetic”. Consistent with this perspective, the ontology of this research is anchored in realism with the aim of uncovering reality with regard to consumers’ identification in the branding context. Realists believe that the social world is comprised of facts and has a separate existence to that of the researcher (Burrell &Morgan, 1979). This research takes the positivist approach where the research deals with an observable social reality and the objective is to create knowledge that can be generalised and replicated (Saunders et al., 2007). Through a positivist approach, existing theory and literature are used to generate items and develop hypotheses i.e. the research is deductive in nature. The items generated and hypothesised relationships are then analysed using rigorous quantitative techniques. Hence, this clearly justifies that this research demonstrates the functionalist standpoint.

6.3 Research Design

A research design is the “plan of study used as a guide in collecting and analysing data (Churchill, 1999: 98) or the “framework or blueprint” for conducting a research investigation (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). The research design decisions should always be consistent and guided by the research questions and objectives (Saunders et al., 2007). An appropriate research design is vital because it specifies the type of data to be collected, the data collection technique and the sampling process (Hair et al., 2003). Additionally, a well-defined research design increases the chance of conducting an effective and efficient research (Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

6.3.1 Types of Research Design

Research designs can be broadly classified as exploratory, descriptive or casual (Hair et al., 2003). Exploratory research involves seeking insights and an understanding of the nature of a problem (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). In other words, exploratory research is particularly helpful in finding out "what is happening; to seek new insights; to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light" (Robson, 2002: 59). It is characterised as a flexible, loosely structured, and evolutionary approach that is used when (a) the nature of the problem cannot be measured in a quantitative manner, (b) more precise sub-problems need to be specified, and (c) research questions or hypotheses need more development. Exploratory research can be carried out on its own or may be the initial step in a research design followed by descriptive or casual research (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). The major ways of conducting exploratory research include search of the literature (Saunders et al., 2007), expert surveys, and qualitative interviews (Hair et al., 2003; Malhotra & Birks, 2006; Saunders et al., 2007).

Descriptive research is a pre-planned and structured approach, characterised by prior formulation of specific research questions and hypotheses and clearly defined information (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Descriptive research aims to collect data and describe the existing characteristics (e.g. attitudes, intentions, preferences, and behaviours) of a defined target population using scientific methods and procedures (Hair et al., 2003). It is particularly useful when the research objectives involve testing specific hypotheses and examining relationships among specified variables (Hair et al., 2003; Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

Descriptive research can be further categorised into cross-sectional and longitudinal research designs (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Cross-sectional research involves the study of a particular problem at a single point in time (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007) and seeks to collect information from respondents only once (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Compared to longitudinal designs, cross-sectional research designs are more representative of the target population and involve less response bias (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). However, a major drawback of cross-sectional designs when compared with longitudinal designs is the difficulty in establishing time order (i.e. the sequence of occurrence of observed phenomena), which is an important prerequisite for inferring causality between variables (Bollen, 1989). Single cross-sectional designs and multiple cross-sectional designs are two types of cross-sectional research. In single cross-sectional designs, information is collected from one sample at a single point in time. On the other hand, multiple cross-sectional designs involve two or more different samples and information is obtained from each sample only once (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Longitudinal research seeks to collect information from one or more fixed samples of the population at specified intervals over an extended period of time (Malhotra & Birks, 2006; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). In contrast to the cross sectional designs, a major advantage of longitudinal designs is the ability to provide an in-depth view of the situation and detect the changes that take place over time. Additionally, longitudinal designs help the researcher to collect larger amounts of data compared to cross-sectional designs. An added advantage is the quality of information obtained which is usually more accurate to that provided using cross-sectional designs. The major shortcomings of the longitudinal design, however, are that it may not be representative and suffers from response bias (Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

Causal research is a type of conclusive research (Malhotra & Birks, 2006) used to assess cause (independent variables) and effect (dependent variables) relationships (Churchill, 1999; Hair et al., 2003). Casual research designs are particularity useful in identifying, determining and explaining causality among measured variables, however, they tend to be complex, expensive and time-consuming (Hair et al., 2003). As in descriptive research, causal research is a pre-planned and structured approach. However, in contrast to casual research, descriptive research is not suitable for examining casual relationships where independent variables are manipulated under relatively controlled conditions (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Experimental designs are considered the main method of casual research (Hair et al., 2003; Malhotra & Birks, 2006). It is worth noting that the differences between exploratory, descriptive and causal research are not absolute (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). That is, based on the research objectives, the research investigation may involve the use of more than one type of research design

6.3.2 Research Design Employed in this Research

A two-stage research design was conducted to achieve the research objectives. The first stage of the research involved employing an exploratory research design to develop initial insights and understanding of the phenomenon under investigation and to form the basis for further investigation. Specifically, the exploratory research design was used to attain a theoretical understanding of the construct of interest and its dimensions and to generate a pool of items for each dimension to be content analysed. This stage involved undertaking a comprehensive and systematic literature review and two expert surveys. The aim of the expert surveys was to identify the items that best capture the domain of the construct. The second stage of the research employed a descriptive research design because it helps (a) to examine the dimensionality and the validity of the scale through rigorous quantitative techniques, and (b) to determine whether there are relationships between the consumer-brand identification construct and its hypothesised antecedents and consequences and thus provides evidence of the scale's nomological validity. Given the research focus together with the financial and time constraints, longitudinal research design was not employed. Cross-sectional research design, which is the most commonly used type of descriptive research (Malhotra & Birks, 2006), was adopted in this research. Specifically, multiple cross-sectional research design, rather than single cross-sectional design, was deemed more appropriate to develop a reliable and valid scale of the consumer-brand identification construct. It is widely recommended in the scale development literature to use more than one sample to assess the psychometric properties of a new measure and thus enhances the generalisability of the new instrument (e.g. Churchill, 1979; Hinkin, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

6.4 Scale Development Process

As previously mentioned, the scale development process comprised three respective phases based on the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979), Devellis (2003), Gerbing and Anderson (1988), Hinkin (1998), and Netemeyer et al. (2003). Each phase addressed different issues relating to the development and validation of the construct's scale. Phase one involved defining the focal construct and generating an initial pool of items that measure each dimension. These items were then administered to expert judges to be assessed for content and face validity and reduced to a more manageable level. Phase two was a deductive phase and consisted of two studies. The first study included an online survey of American consumers to begin reducing and purifying the items and examining the initial structure of the scale. The second study entailed an online survey of new sample of American consumers to further purify the items and examine dimensionality, reliability, and validity (convergent, discriminant, and predictive) of the scale. Phase three was a deductive phase and consisted of mail survey to consumers in UK to provide additional evidence of dimensionality, reliability, convergent and discriminant validity and primarily to assess the measure's nomological validity. Figure 6.2 illustrates an overview of the sequence of the three phases of the scale development process.

6.5 Phase One – Construct Definition and Item Generation

The first phase in the scale development process is construct definition and item generation. Underscored in this phase are the following issues: (1) construct definition, (2) generating an item pool, (3) item wording, and (4) expert item judging. The next sub-sections outline each step in detail.

6.5.1 Construct Definition

The first and most difficult step in any scaling process is clearly defining the construct of interest (Churchill, 1979; Netemeyer et al., 2003). More specifically, it involves specifying the domain of the construct and outlining what is included in the definition and what is excluded (Churchill, 1979). The importance of being well grounded in the relevant theory related to the focal construct should not be ignored i.e. "theory is a great aid to clarity" (Devellis, 2003: 60). Further, the theory and a thorough literature review could potentially help to specify a priori the theoretical dimensionality of the subject construct (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Chapter Two provided a detailed discussion of the theory underlying the construct of interest. Consequently, the social identity theory enabled this study to develop an initial definition of CBI and to determine the theoretical dimensionality of the construct.

Phase 1- Construct Definition and Item Generation

Construct definition
Generating an item pool
Item wording
Expert item judging-Two stages
1st stage: Panel of 6 marketing academics and 6 PhD students
2nd stage: New panel of 3 marketing academics and 3 PhD students

Phase 2- Scale Development and Initial Validation

i) Scale Development Study (1st Sample)
Sampling Method: Convenience sampling
Sample Size: 632 Responses
Selected Products: Laptops & Cars
Data Collection Method: Internet surveys
Data Analyses: Cronbach Alpha, EFA, CFA

ii) Initial Validation Study (2nd Sample)
Sampling Method: Convenience sampling
Sample Size: 696 respondents
Selected Products: Beer & Athletic Shoes
Data Collection Method: Internet surveys
Data Analyses: Cronbach Alpha, EFA, CFA

Phase 3- Final Validation Study (3rd Sample)

Sampling Method: Stratified random sampling
Sample Size: 333 respondents
Research Setting: A number of service categories
Data Collection Method: Drop-off surveys
Data Analyses: Cronbach Alpha, EFA, CFA , SEM

Figure 6.2 An Overview of the Scale Development Process

Specifically, CBI was initially defined as:

"*The extent to which the brand is incorporated into one's self concept whereby the consumer perceives a self-defining cognitive association with the brand, values this association, and feels an emotional attachment toward the brand*".

On the basis of the social identity theory and the proposed definition, CBI is considered a multidimensional construct with three dimensions, namely, cognitive identification, evaluative identification and affective identification. Specifically, CBI is a reflective second-order construct with three reflective first-order dimensions. The reasons for specifying CBI as a reflective rather than a formative construct are discussed in a later section. As noted in Chapter Four, preliminary definitions were developed to describe each dimension. Throughout the process, these definitions served as a guide to the scale development process (Devellis, 2003).

6.5.2 Generating an Item Pool

The second step in the scale development process is to generate a pool of items to tap the theoretical domain of the construct (Churchill, 1979). The theoretical definitions of the construct and its dimensions were used as guidance for the development of the items (Devellis, 2003). According to Hinkin (1998: 107), "in most situations in which theory does exist, the deductive approach would be most appropriate" and helps to ensure content validity if properly conducted. This research adopted the deductive approach, also referred to logical partitioning or classification from above, to generate an initial set of items that could capture the domain of the construct (Hinkin, 1998). Theoretically, the items were selected from the universe or population of items that is related to the focal construct (Devellis, 2003). At this stage, "it is better to be overinclusive of the construct domain rather than inclusive in generating an item pool" (Netemeyer et al., 2003: 96). Following this approach enhances the probability that the domain of the construct is adequately represented. Inadequate sampling is a major source of measurement error (Churchill, 1979). Whereas Devellis (2003) recommended that an item pool three or four times the size of the final scale is desirable, Robinson et al. (1991) suggested a pool of 250 items for multidimensional constructs (Netemeyer et al., 2003). In other words, "the larger the item pool, the better" (Devellis, 2003: 66). Although the items generated may appear to be redundant, the common content between the items will summate across items while unrelated idiosyncratic content will cancel out. That is, redundancy in the initial set of items is desirable and serves as an insurance against poor internal consistency (Devellis, 2003). Following these recommendation, a pool of 97 items were generated by the author, a review of existing scales on identification and adapting items addressing related constructs. A full list of items, their source and context can be found in Appendix A1.

6.5.3 Item Writing

In parallel to item generation, it was necessary to consider the issue of item wording and clarity. Care was taken to keep the items short without sacrificing the meaning of the item (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Exceptionally lengthy items are more likely to "increase complexity and diminish clarity" (Devellis, 2003: 67). It was ensured that the items selected and developed are simple and common to the target population reading level (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005; Devellis, 2003; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Items were also screened to avoid ambiguous and vague words (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005), double barrelled (Devellis, 2003; Netemeyer et al., 2003), double negatives (Baker, 2003), and jargons or trendy slang (Baker, 2003; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Both positively and negatively worded items were included in the item pool in an attempt to reduce response bias in terms of acquiescence, affirmation or agreement bias (Devellis, 2003). A list of the items and the characteristics to be avoided are presented in Appendix A2.

6.5.4 Expert Item Judging

Following the generation of a pool of relevant items, the items should be administered to a panel of people who are knowledgeable in the research area to review and judge the item pool (Devellis, 2003). Given that the content validity assessment is a cognitive task that does not require an understanding of the phenomenon under examination (Hinkin, 1998), other researchers suggested that using students (e.g. Anderson & Gerbing, 1991) or naïve respondents (e.g. Mackenzie et al., 1991) is satisfactory. This process serves to eliminate the poor items that are considered inconsistent with the conceptualisation provided (Hinkin, 1998) and thus maximises the content validity of the scale (Devellis, 2003). The content validity of a measurement instrument reflects the extent to which the measure's items capture the domain of the construct (Hardesty & Bearden, 2004; Rungtusanatham, 1998). Although there is no general agreement in the literature to the exact procedures and methods for assessing content validity (Hinkin, 1998), Hardesty and Bearden (2004) outlined the two most common judgemental approaches in the marketing literature: (1) assigning the items to the construct's dimensions definitions in case of multidimensional constructs, and (2) assessing the relevancy of the items with regards to the construct's definition (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Both methods were employed in this research. Specifically, the content validity was assessed in two stages. This helps to provide evidence of content adequacy (Hinkin, 1998).

6.5.4.1 Expert Item Judging- Stage 1

At the first stage, a panel of six marketing academics in leading universities and six doctoral students completed the experience survey (see Appendix A3 for a copy of the experience survey). Whereas Netemeyer et al. (2003) recommended five or more judges as a practical rule of thumb, Anderson and Gerbing (1991) suggested that a sample size from 12-20 is suitable for assessing content validity. Following Devellis (2003) suggestions, the experience survey served different objectives to maximise the content validity of the scale. First, each panel member was exposed to the definition of each dimension and was requested to assign each item to the relevant dimension or to a "not applicable category". Second, the experience survey encouraged the panel members to evaluate each item clarity and conciseness and to suggest alternative items or wording. This would enhance the item wording and clarity. Third, the panel members were requested to add any additional items that would capture the domain of the construct and were not included. Given that a qualitative stage (i.e. focus groups or interviews) was not conducted in item generation, this step could compensate any shortcomings in the item generation step. One of the marketing academics indicated that these items are more than enough. This may suggest that the items adequately tapped the domain of the construct. The assignment of the items was analysed using a substantive validity analysis technique prescribed by Anderson and Gerbing (1991). The remaining items were evaluated using another panel of experts.

6.5.4.2 Expert Item Judging- Stage 2

The second stage of content validity assignment adopted the technique recommended by Zaichkowsky (1985). The items remaining from the first stage constituted the second experience survey. A new panel of three marketing academics and three PhD students completed the experience survey (see Appendix A4 for a copy of the experience survey). The panel members were requested to indicate the extent to which each item represents the dimensions' definitions and domain (i.e. not representative, somewhat representative, and clearly representative). Similar to the first stage, the panel members were requested to assess each item clarity and conciseness and add any additional items that tap the domain of the construct. Hardesty and Bearden (2004) observed that there is limited direction in the literature regarding the rules used to retain items. Some scholars required that all judges rate the item at least somewhat representative to be retained (e.g. Bearden et al., 1989; Netemeyer et al., 1996), others suggested that an item to be retained if 80% of the judges rate the item at least somewhat representative (e.g. Lichtenstein et al., 1990; Zaichkowsky, 1985), others suggested that an item to be retained if at least 50% or 60% of the panel members rate it as completely representative (e.g. Manning et al., 1995; Saxe & Weitz, 1982). This research adopted the retention rule of Lichtenstein et al. (1990) and Zaichkowsky (1985). Attention is now turned to the discussion of the sampling process, product categories and brands selected, questionnaire development process, and the chosen data analyses methods for each study.

6.6 Phase Two – Scale Development and Initial Validation (1st and 2nd Study)

The previous phase of the scale development process focused on construct definition, item generation, item wording and expert item judging. The second phase included two studies. The purpose of the first study, labelled as "scale development study", is to delete the items that do not meet certain psychometric properties. Specifically, items that survived the content validity assessment were included in a questionnaire to purify and refine the scale and examine its initial dimensionality. The objective of the second study, labelled as "initial validation study", is to further investigate the scale dimensionality, reliability, and validity (convergent and discriminant) using a new sample and different product categories and brands. Attention is now turned to the discussion of each study.

6.7 Scale Development Study (1st Sample)

6.7.1 Sampling Process

Hair et al. (2003) identified a number of critical variables in selecting the appropriate sampling design. First, the research objectives guide the researcher's choice of the appropriate sampling design. Second, the required degree of accuracy varies from research to another and influences the selection of the sampling method. Third, the researcher's financial and human resources are significant variables in determining the appropriate sampling design. Fourth, the time frame influences the selection of the sampling method. Fifth, the availability of a complete and adequate list of the target population is necessary for probability sampling method. Finally, the selection of the sampling method is influenced by the scope of the research.

Considering the variables that affect the sampling design, this section discusses key issues relating to the sample from which the data was collected for this research, including the target population, the sampling method, rationale for using Amazon Mechanical Turk a source of recruiting respondents, and the sample size .

6.7.1.1 Sampling Method

The target population of the first study are consumers in the United States who are familiar with the chosen product categories and brands. United States is one of the largest consumer markets in the world (Mukherjee et al., 2012) and US consumers are considered to be one of the most brand conscious populations in western economies (Rausch, 2002). This high level of brand awareness and consumption in the US help to develop a reliable and valid measurement for the CBI construct. Sampling methods are broadly classified into two main types: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling techniques rely on the researcher's personal judgement as opposed to probability sampling techniques that rely on equal chance in selecting sample elements (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Probability sampling includes simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling. Non-probability sampling comprises convenience sampling, judgement sampling, quota sampling and snowballing sampling.

A convenience non-probability sampling technique was adopted in this study for three main reasons. First, the focus of the study is scale development rather than generalisation to the population. Given that the objective of the scale development study is to reduce the item pool to a more manageable number, convenience sampling is adequate (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Convenience sampling is commonly used in early stages of scale measurement development. Second, available resources and time frame are limited. Researchers involved in short-term projects are more likely to select a simple and less time consuming sampling method (Hair et al., 2003). Third, it is difficult to obtain a complete list of population elements (i.e. consumers who are highly familiar with the selected brands) and identify an appropriate sampling frame. "A lack of adequate lists may automatically rule out systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling or any other type of probability sampling method" (Hair et al., 2003: 364). This study employed convenience sampling by using the services of Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT). AMT is an online marketplace that manages a large, diverse workforce with around hundreds of thousands of workers and around ten thousand of employers (Buhrmester et al., 2011). An overview of AMT and the rationale for using it as a potential source of respondents is provided in the following section.

6.7.1.2 Rationale for Using Amazon Mechanical Turk

Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) is an online labour market where respondents or participants (called workers) are recruited by companies or individuals (called requesters) to complete small tasks (called Human Intelligence Tasks) in exchange for money (called reward) (Sprouse, 2011). Previous studies have found that using monetary incentives in general and small-prepaid financial incentives in particular are effective in enhancing the response rate in online surveys (Deutskens et al., 2004; Göritz, 2006). It is important to note that the literature does not provide evidence that incentives affect the response quality (Deutskens et al., 2004). Human

Intelligence Tasks (HITs) are generally small and simple in nature such as audio transcriptions, image tagging, experiments or questionnaire completion (Goodman et al., 2013; Sprouse, 2011). All information about the HIT, such as a brief description of the task, size of the reward, and time expected to complete the task, is discernible to workers who meet predetermined criteria specified by the requester (e.g. country of residence, approval rate in previous work) (Paolacci et al., 2010). Rewards range from $0.01 to more than $1.0 per HIT and requesters retain the ability to accept or reject completed tasks before Amazon sends the payment to the worker (Sprouse, 2011). Requesters have the ability also to reward quality work with bonuses and refuse payment or block the worker from completing further tasks for subpar work (Paolacci et al., 2010). In terms of locations, workers are a diverse group of individuals (129 different countries) with a significant number of workers located in both United States (47%) and India (34%). Compared to the general population of the United States and the population of internet users, on average workers are slightly younger, educational level of workers is higher and slightly lower income (Paolacci et al., 2010). Overall, it has been argued that AMT workers located in the United States are closer to the general population of the United States compared to respondents recruited from universities (Paolacci et al., 2010). Recently, AMT has been extensively used by researchers in psychology and other social sciences in top American universities as a participant source (Goodman et al., 2013). Buhrmester et al. (2011: 5) found that “the quality of data provided by MTurk (AMT) met or exceeded the psychometric standards associated with published research”.

AMT has several unique benefits as an online source of participants. First, it provides access to a large, stable and anonymous respondent pool who is willing to participate for a reward (Paolacci et al., 2010). Second, it is a viable means for inexpensive and rapid collection of data compared to other online recruitment methods (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Goodman et al., 2013). Third, AMT workers are more diverse and representative compared to online and student respondents (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Goodman et al., 2013; Paolacci et al., 2010). This diversity can broaden the validity of studies beyond a student population. Fourth, AMT provides a supportive infrastructure and payment process (Paolacci et al., 2010). Fifth, many of AMT workers are self-motivated and enjoy the tasks they accomplish online (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Sixth, it was found that the data obtained via AMT is as reliable as those obtained from traditional methods (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Overall, it can be concluded that AMT is a high quality source of participants (Goodman et al., 2013).

6.7.1.3 Sample Size

A number of rules have been proposed for determining the sample size required to produce a stable solution when performing exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Devellis (2003) suggested a sample size of around 300, while Clark and Watson (1995) proposed that 100-200 is appropriate. According to Netemeyer et al. (2003), the number of items in the initial pool is an important issue to be considered. Specifically, they suggested that 100 to 200 deems appropriate for a pool with 20 items or less, while a sample size of 300 is preferable for larger pools. A sample size of at least 200 was suggested by Hinkin (1998) as a general guideline for exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Further recommendations for item-to-response ratio range from 1:5 to 1: 10 (Hair et al., 2010). Based on the above considerations, a sample size of at least 250 was deemed adequate for both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis.

6.7.2 Selected Product Categories and Brands

In selecting a representative and comprehensive product categories and brands for the first two studies, a three-step process was conducted. First, product categories selected must satisfy a number of conditions. Specifically, product categories (a) varied in price range, frequency of purchase, needs they serve (i.e. symbolic and functional), and consumers' product involvement, (b) covered different types of products (i.e. convenience and shopping), (c) were familiar to respondents, (d) conspicuous, and (e) used in different situations. Second, following Kapoor and Heslop (2009) recommendations, product categories used in prior branding studies and satisfied the above conditions were selected. Table 6.1 presents the product categories selected from previous studies along with their characteristics. Third, to ensure that the product categories and brands included in the studies are sufficiently well known and familiar to the respondents, seventy respondents were recruited from AMT and were provided a list of ten product categories. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of familiarity with the product categories on a 5-point Likert scale (1= not at all familiar and 5= extremely familiar). They were also asked to choose four product categories they are most familiar with and name one major well-known brand that is considered symbolic in nature and another brand that is perceived as functional in nature (see Appendix B1for the online pretest of product categories and brands). The familiarity scores and brands listed were used to select the most familiar product categories and brands to respondents. The four product categories that scored the highest mean rating were used in studies one and two. In addition, the brands listed more frequently were used to select the symbolic and functional brands.

Product Category	Product Type	Price	Involvement	Frequency of Use
Athletic Shoes	Shopping product	Medium	Medium	Medium
Mobile Phones	Shopping product	Medium	Medium	Medium
Cars	Shopping product	High	High	Low
Beer	Convenience product	Low	Low	High
Jeans	Shopping product	Medium	Medium	Medium
Watches	Shopping product	Medium	Medium	Medium
Backpack	Shopping product	Medium	Medium	Medium
Fragrance	Shopping product	Medium	Medium	Medium
Laptops	Shopping product	Medium	Medium	Medium
Tablet PCs	Shopping product	Medium	Medium	Medium

Table 6.1 A List of Product Categories Selected from Previous Studies

6.7.3 Questionnaire Design

This section describes the questionnaire design process, following the steps outlined by Malhotra and Birks (2006: 330). This process is depicted in Figure 6.3. Malhotra and Birks (2006) argued that any questionnaire has three main objectives. First, it is important to ensure that the developed set of questions will yield the required information and could be answered by the target sample. Second, the questionnaire should be designed in a way that motivates and encourages the respondent to contribute to the research by completing the questionnaire. Third, an important objective of a questionnaire design is to minimise response error.

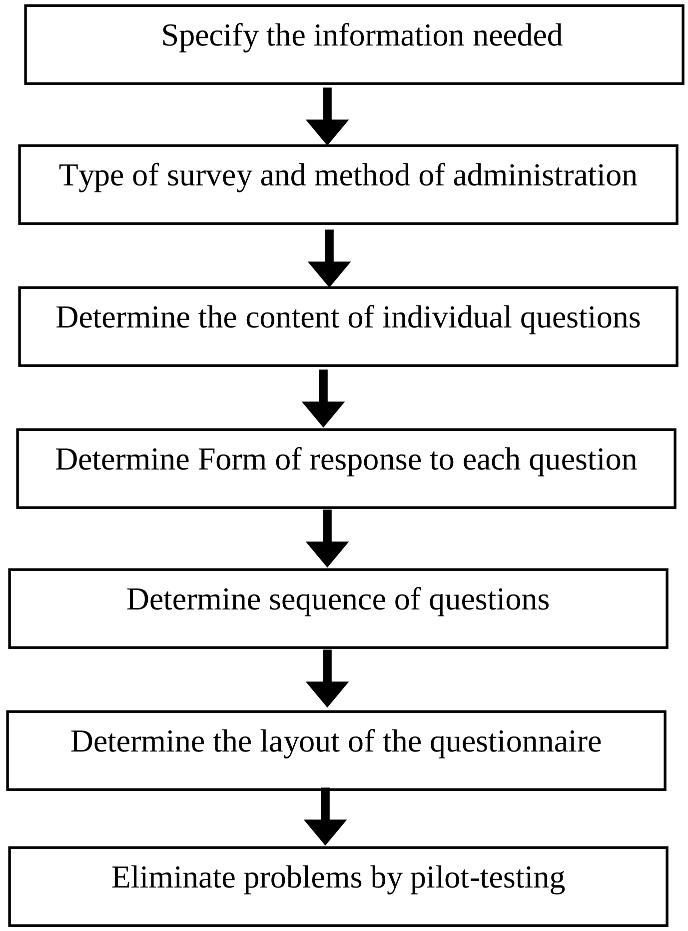


Figure 6.3 Questionnaire Design Process (Source: Malhotra and Birks, 2006)

6.7.3.1 Information Needed

The first step in developing an effective questionnaire is to specify the information required to answer the research questions. The main purpose of this study is to retain the items that have satisfactory psychometric properties. Overall, three types of information were collected throughout the questionnaire. The first type of information is concerned with screening the respondents' degree of familiarity with the brands selected. This is to ensure that the participants are eligible to complete the questionnaire. The second type of information required is the respondents' level of identification with the brands selected. The initial item pool forms the basis for the development of these items. The final type of information required is data on specific demographic characteristics. This information is needed to create a descriptive profile of the respondents. According to Malhotra and Birks (2006), respondents are more willing to answer sensitive classification questions at the end after rapport has been formed and legitimacy of the research has been established. Moreover, in case of respondents' fatigue, the substantive information has already been attained at the beginning of the questionnaire (Brace, 2006).

6.7.3.2 Type of Survey and Method of Administration

It is important to consider both the data collection and administration method given their influence on the type of questions (Malhotra & Birks, 2006) and scale measurements to be used (Hair et al., 2003). For example, lengthy and complex questions could be used in personal interviews, simple questions and detailed instruction are needed for mail and online questionnaires. Considering the information needed for this investigation along with the location of the sample, web-based/internet self-administered survey was deemed the most suitable approach to data collection. Specifically, AMT workers who satisfy predefined criteria (i.e. located in the United States and their approval rate in previous tasks is at least 95%) followed a link to an online survey that randomly assigned them to a brand.

Online surveys are increasingly used in both academic and market research (Evans & Mathur, 2005) and primarily associated with the deductive approach (Saunders et al., 2007). Hair et al. (2003: 268) highlighted the difference between e-mail surveys and web-based/internet surveys. An e-mail survey "is a self-administered data collection technique in which the survey is electronically delivered to and returned from the respondent by e-mail". In contrast, a web-based survey refers to a questionnaire placed on a website for potential respondents to complete (Hair et al., 2003). Web-based surveys have numerous advantages that have been highlighted in the literature. Web-based surveys allow flexibility in data collection as researchers can easily use a variety of question formats and handle complex skip or filter patterns (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Web-based surveys are easily customised to customer demographics, language, or brand familiarity (Evans & Mathur, 2005) and allow incorporating the respondent answers in subsequent questions (Hair et al., 2003). They are often quick, less expensive to prepare and administer, and easy to follow-up those who have not responded. In addition, internet surveys have the advantage that respondents are free to complete the questionnaires at their own pace time and at a convenient time for themselves (Evans & Mathur, 2005). An added advantage of internet surveys is eliminating the need for data entry and thus errors in data are less likely to occur compared to traditional methods (Hair et al., 2003). Moreover, web-based surveys have the advantage of handling socially desirable responses and obtaining sensitive information because of anonymity associated with online surveys. Web-based surveys are free of interviewer bias which may be present in personal or telephone interviews (Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

However, no data collection method is without limitations. The major weaknesses of web-based surveys on the other side are low response rates (Evans & Mathur, 2005; Malhotra & Birks, 2006), lack of representativeness of the general population and non-response bias (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Non-response bias is discussed in more details in a later section. With respect to AMT, response rates are a function of compensation amounts and task lengths (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012). It was found that a task that rewards workers with only 1 cent and asks them to answer two questions, collected 500 responses in 33 hours (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Pretesting the questionnaire among AMT workers was undertaken to identify any problems with the reward amount and the survey length, and thus overcomes the problem of low response rate. Questionnaire pretesting is discussed in detail in a later section. Further, it was argued that AMT workers are more diverse and representative of nonstudent populations compared to typical online and student samples (Buhrmester et al., 2011).

6.7.3.3 Content of Individual Questions

The survey was divided into three main sections. In the introductory section, one question was used to screen out respondents. Brand familiarity is the main criterion that was required for respondents to continue with the remainder of the questionnaire. The following question was used to indicate the degree of brand familiarity “Please indicate the degree to which you are familiar with Apple Laptops". Following Malär et al. (2011) and Lam et al. (2012), after randomly assigning respondents to a brand, only those who report an overall brand familiarity of at least 3 were allowed to continue with the questionnaire. A new brand was randomly assigned if the brand familiarity was less than 3. Given that the respondent was unfamiliar with the four brands, he or she was directed to the end of the questionnaire. The main purpose of this screening question is to eliminate any possible errors due to respondents not being familiar with the selected brands.

The main section of the questionnaire included two types of questions. The first type of question contained the item pool of CBI scale. Items were not grouped by dimensions to reduce pattern response (Brace, 2006). The second type of question included items measuring the respondents' attitude towards the two brands. These questions were included as additional information that may be required for further analysis purposes. This is to enable further analysis on how brand attitude may influence consumers' level of identification towards brands. The last section of the questionnaire comprised two types of questions. The first question contained three items of the marker variable construct that was used to control for common method bias. The second question was designed to determine the respondents' demographic characteristics. Classification questions included the respondents' gender, age, annual income and highest level of completed education.

6.7.3.4 Form of Response to Each Question

Three main issues need to be considered in determining the response format: (a) type of response format, (b) number of response categories, and (c) labelling of response categories (Devellis, 2003; Weijters et al., 2010). The two dominant response formats are dichotomous and multichotomous forms (Netemeyer et al., 2003). The most widely used multichotomous scales are Likert scale and semantic differential scale (Netemeyer et al., 2003). In line with Park et al. (2010), semantic differential scale was used to measure the respondents' attitude toward brands. Given the need to measure the strength and direction of respondents' identification with brands, Likert scale format was utilised for CBI items. Specifically, Likert scales require respondents to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with a series of statements about a given object (Hair et al., 2003). Likert scales are widely used in instruments measuring the respondents opinions, beliefs, attitudes or personality about the stimulus objects (Devellis, 2003; Spector, 1992) and best suited for self-administered online surveys (Hair et al., 2003). Additionally, Likert scales have several advantages in that it is easy to construct, administer and understand (Baker, 2003; Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

In terms of the number of response categories, an important decision to be made is using forced-choice format with an even number of responses or free-choice format with an odd number of responses. With an even number, the respondent is forced to have an opinion although he may not actually have. On the other side, with an odd number, the respondent is offered a scale midpoint or neutral response (Netemeyer et al., 2003). There is little consensus in the literature as to the optimum number of points, however, between five and nine is optimal in most cases (Netemeyer et al., 2003; Spector, 1992). Considering the above, seven-point Likert scale was utilised for several reasons. First, the literature suggests that using more rather than less scale points (i.e. seven-point Likert scale rather than five-point Likert scale) helps to increase construct variance and reduce measurement error variance (Ping, 2004). Second, the absence of a mid-point would be problematic because it may not truly reflect the respondent's opinion (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Third, it is preferable to use an odd number of responses if there is no legitimate reason for forcing respondents to provide an answer (Brace, 2006). A final consideration is related to response categories labelling. The commonly used formats are (a) fully labelling all response categories, or (b) labelling the endpoints only (Weijters et al., 2010). According to Cox (1980: 420), labelling response categories "enable participants to conceptualise and respond in spatial terms“. Moreover, response categories fully labelled makes the scale “more directly interpretable” (Weijters et al., 2010: 245). Therefore, a fully labelled seven-point Likert scale was used for CBI items.

6.7.3.5 Sequence and Physical Characteristics of Questions

The sequence of questions and physical layout of the questionnaire is considered a critical issue in self-completion questionnaires (Hair et al., 2003). Following Hair et al. (2003), the questionnaire started with a brief introductory section outlining the purpose and importance of the research, ensuring anonymity to encourage participation, and requesting respondents to spend some time completing the questionnaire. In order to have a logical order, the questionnaire started with the screening questions, followed by the basic questions and ended with the classification questions. The final part was a thank-you statement for contributing to the research. The respondents were provided clear instructions for each series of statements to make it easier for them to complete the questionnaire. Given the importance of the screen design to online questionnaires (Brace, 2013), a number factors were taken into consideration in determining the layout of the questionnaire.

First, questions were not numbered so that the task does not appear too daunting and thereby hinder completion. However, a progress bar was included to give respondents a rough indication of their progress. In addition, several motivational statements were added at key points in the questionnaire to motivate respondents to complete the questionnaire (e.g. “Hang in there! You are nearing the finish line”). Second, regarding the optimal length of web-based surveys, the literature suggests that higher response rates occur when the announced length is shorter (Galesic & Bosnjak, 2009). Specifically, Galesic and Bosnjak (2009) found that shorter announced length (10 minutes compared to 30 minutes) is more likely to increase respondents' participation and completion response rates. The questionnaire length was addressed by using two brands side by side to reduce the length of the questionnaire and avoid statements repetition. In addition, it was indicated in the introduction that the questionnaire would take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Third, a clear font size was adopted together with bold, italic and coloured formats to draw attention to the instructions and key points (Brace, 2013) and to maintain respondent interest in the survey and thus enhance completion rates (Couper et al., 2001). Additionally, the order of the questions was randomised for each respondent to control order bias.

6.7.3.6 Pretest and Revise the Questionnaire

Pilot testing refers to "testing the questionnaire on a sample of respondents to identify and eliminate potential problems" (Malhotra & Birks, 2006: 345). There is a general agreement in the literature that testing the questionnaire before the field survey is an essential step (Brace, 2006; Hair et al., 2003). The main objective of the pilot study is to identify any problematic issues regarding question content, wording, sequence, form, difficulty, layout, instructions and time-scale (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Generally, the sample size of the pilot study ranges from 15 to 30 respondents (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Malhotra and Birks (2006) and Hair et al. (2003) suggested that respondents to the pilot-study should be representative of the expected respondents in the typical study. On the other side, Peterson (2000) suggested that a convenience sample that includes respondents who are similar to the target sample is appropriate for

Respondents' feedback	Adjustments
It was suggested to make the time (10-15 minutes) in bold.	This part in the introductory section was changed to be bold.
A number of concerns were raised to this question "Are you a user of this brand". First, does the question mean an Apple laptop or any Apple product? Second, it was not clear if the question is asking about current or previous usage of the brand.	Considering these comments, this question was modified to "Do you currently use/own apple laptop?
Respondents cast doubt with respect to the order of the response categories. Specifically, they suggested that "Agree" and "Slightly Agree", "Disagree" and "Slightly Disagree" are in reverse order.	It was recognised that the response categories were not written in a logical order. The order of response categories was modified to: strongly disagree, disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, agree, or strongly agree.
Whereas respondents liked the motivational statements and indicated that it motivates them to complete the questionnaire, a number of improvements were suggested. First, to change the uppercase letters to lowercase letters. Second, to change the red colour to green or blue as red has negative associations.	Based on these comments, the colour of the motivational statements was changed from red to green and from uppercase letters to lowercase letters.
Regarding the horizontal design, the respondents found it a little bit crowded but at the same time not annoying to them. However, they suggested dividing each table into two tables in order for the respondents to see the response categories without scrolling up and down.	The researcher found this suggestion very useful. The researcher examined the optimal number of statements in each table on different laptops sizes (15 and 11 inch). It was found that from 8 to 12 statements is the most optimal number of items in each table to be seen without scrolling down. Therefore, tables were modified to include 10 items only.
There was no consensus among respondents with respect to question numbering.	Given the survey length, the questions were not numbered so that the task does not appear too daunting and thereby hinder completion.
With respect to "save and continue" option, some respondents found it useful to return back where they stopped in case they stopped answering the questionnaire for any reason. Others argued that it is short survey and no need to incorporate this option.	The researcher found that including this option might help respondents to complete the survey at any time.
One respondent suggested adding control or quality check questions to make sure that respondents are reading the questions.	Following this suggestion, one question was placed with other measures to enhance data quality "To ensure that participants are reading the questions, please select "strongly disagree".

Table 6.2 Feedback of Respondents in Pilot Study (Scale Development Study)

test was conducted in two stages. First, the questionnaire was distributed to five doctoral students at Cardiff, Essex, Warwick, and Hull Universities. At the second stage, ten participants from Amazon Mechanical Turk completed the questionnaire. At both stages, respondents were asked to provide their comments regarding questions, instructions, response categories…etc., to outline anything that they feel confusing and difficult to understand, and finally to point out any suggestions that could help to improve the questionnaire layout. The pilot study is presented in Appendix B2. The feedback of respondents and the adjustments made to the questionnaire are outlined in Table 6.2.

6.7.4 Common Method Bias

It has become widely accepted that common method bias, also referred to common method variance (CMV), has the potential to distort the results of a single-method study (Malhotra et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Spector & Brannick, 2010). Podsakoff et al. (2012) and Mackenzie and Podsakoff (2012) suggested that method variance can bias construct reliability and validity estimates and the empirical estimates of relationships among variables. Method variance refers to “variance attributable to the method of measurement rather than the trait of interest” (Spector & Brannick, 2010: 403). CMV is considered as one of the main sources of measurement error, which in turn undermines the validity of the observed relationships among variables assessed with the same method (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Spector and Brannick (2010) and Malhotra et al. (2006) recognised that concerns about CMV are more likely to be raised when self-report surveys are employed as the measurement method. Recognising the potential serious effects that CMV may have on research findings, given the survey nature of this research, it was necessary to counterbalance possible sources of bias. According to Podsakoff et al. (2003), two ways could be used to control method bias: (a) procedural remedies, and (b) statistical remedies. In line with Mackenzie and Podsakoff (2012) recommendations, several procedural remedies related to the questionnaire design were undertaken to minimise method variance as shown in Table 6.3. Additionally, regarding the statistical remedies, a comprehensive confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) marker technique was employed to control method variance. CFA marker technique is discussed in detail in Chapter Seven.

Potential Sources of bias	Improvement Techniques
Lack of respondent ability (verbal skills, education, or cognitive sophistication)	The questionnaire was pretested to ensure that the questions are written at a level the respondents can comprehend.
Lack of experience thinking about the topic	A screening question was added to ensure that only participants who indicate familiarity with the brands selected will complete the questionnaire.
Complex questions and item ambiguity	Complex, difficult, ambiguous, double-barrelled and other faulty items were eliminated in the first phase of the scale development process. Additionally, following MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012), all response options were labelled to make it more interpretable.
Low personal relevance of the issue, low need for cognition and low feelings of altruism	Full information about the purpose of the research, the importance of this survey as being a part of a PhD thesis and the importance of their contribution to the research was provided in the introduction page of the questionnaire.
Low self-efficacy to provide a correct answer	Emphasising to respondents in the introduction and the instructions that there are no right or wrong answers and that the most important issue is to answer the questions as honestly and frankly as possible
Low need for self-expression	Explaining to respondents in the introduction and the instructions that “we need their opinion,” or that "we want to know their impression". Additionally, in the motivational statements, the researcher emphasised the importance of their responses to the research.

Impulsiveness, dogmatism and rigidity	Emphasising to respondents in the introduction and the instructions that honesty and accuracy are important to help the researcher get a correct picture of consumers' relationship with brands.
Implicit theories	Physical separation was introduced by preventing respondents from scrolling backwards to consult previous answers. That is, the back option was disabled.
Repetitiveness of the items	Because part of the scale development process is to have redundant and similar items at the early stages, it was difficult to overcome the repetitiveness problem. However, a statement was added in the introduction asking respondents to answer all the questions although some items may seem similar. The statement was "Please answer ALL of the questions even though you will notice that some statements are very similar. This is deliberate and is needed for statistical purposes."
Lengthy scales	The survey is shortened by presenting two different brands beside each other using side-by-side tables in order not to repeat the same items twice.
Contexts that arouse suspicions	The researcher is identified as a doctoral student examining consumers' relationships with different brands. The contact details of both the researcher and the supervisor were provided to respondents if they require further information. In addition, the researcher outlined in the introduction that responses will be treated in confidence, combined with other responses, and used only for academic research purposes.
Grouping related items together.	Questions were deliberately randomised for every respondent throughout the questionnaire to decrease disrupt undesirable response patterns.

Table 6.3 Procedural Remedies to Minimise Common Method Bias (Scale Development Study)

6.7.5 Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures

As previously stated, the main purpose of this study is to purify the items and to examine the initial structure of the scale. This section outlines the quantitative data analysis techniques utilised in this study according to the sequence performed in the data analysis. One of the necessary initial steps in any multivariate data analysis is data examination (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Preliminary data analysis should be performed prior to any in-depth statistical analysis. This involves examination for accuracy, missing data analyses, detection of outliers, and test of normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

6.7.5.1 Examination for Accuracy

Examination for accuracy is the first step following the collection of the questionnaires and sometimes is performed during data collection (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). It involves identifying incomplete, inconsistent or ambiguous responses.

6.7.5.2 Missing Value Analysis

The data was collected using web-based surveys where respondents are required to answer all the items on the screen before proceeding to the next page. Therefore, analysis of missing values was not considered in this study.

6.7.5.3 Test of Outliers

An outlier "is a case with such an extreme value on one variable (a univariate outlier) or such a strange combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariate outlier) that it distorts statistics" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007: 72). A number of reasons may result in the presence of outliers (Hair et al., 2010). First, arises from incorrect data entry. These extreme cases should be checked and identified in the data cleaning stage. Second, arises from extraordinary events representing the uniqueness of the observation. The decision to retain or delete these outliers depends on the extent to which it fits the research objectives. Third, results from unexplained extraordinary observations. The deletion/retention decision must be taken within the context of the research objectives. Outliers are located by either statistical or graphical methods. Z-scores can be used to detect univariate outliers. In large samples, cases with standardised scores exceeding 3.29 ($p<0.001$) are considered potential outliers (Field, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In addition to z-scores, potential univariate outliers can be detected using box-plots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Outliers are those cases that fall away from the box. More precisely, outliers appear as little circles with an attached number in SPSS. Z-scores and boxplots were thus used to detect outliers.

6.7.5.4 Test of Normality

Examining the normality assumption for each variable is an important step in multivariate data analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Normality can be assessed using either statistical methods or graphical methods (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Histograms are subjective and provide little guidance as to whether variables deviate from normality, thus they are not considered the best method for assessing normality (Field, 2005). An inspection of the skewness and kurtosis are usually performed to assess normality, however, “they do not indicate whether the distribution as whole deviates from a comparable normal distribution” (Field, 2005: 93). Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) overcome the limitations of the skewness and kurtosis by comparing the scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of scores. However, according to Stevens (1992), it is preferable to use both the skewness and kurtosis coefficients to test for both types of normality violations separately together with Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) as its combines both in one test (Barnes, 2001). Thus, in addition to the skewness and kurtosis statistics, the normality assumption for each item was tested via Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W).

6.7.5.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Following Hinkin (1998), the first quantitative step in the scale development process involves the use of exploratory factor analysis (EFA). EFA was used to achieve two main objectives (a) to further purify and refine the new scale by reducing the number of items and (b) to reveal the potential dimensionality of the construct. In the scale development process, EFA can be used to achieve both objectives in a complementary fashion (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Conway and Huffcutt (2003) posited that three fundamental decisions need to be considered: (1) the factor extraction method used, (2) the number of factors extracted, and (3) the rotational method used

The factor extraction method used. The methods used for extracting the factors can be broadly categorised to component analysis (i.e. principal component analysis) and common factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Principal component analysis (PCA) is used when the objective is "to reduce the number of variables by creating linear combinations that retain as much of the original measures' variance as possible" (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003: 150), whereas common factor analysis is more concerned with uncovering the underlying dimensions for a set of items (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Although the scaling literature favours the use of common factor analysis (such as principal axis or maximum likelihood factoring) compared to PCA (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Hair et al., 2010; Hinkin, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 2003), it was found that there is a growing use of PCA over common factor analysis among researchers

(Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). The wide use of PCA may be attributed to the complication of common factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). However, it has been reported that both PCA and common factor analysis give almost identical results particularly when the number of items exceed 30 or communalities obtained exceed .60 for most items (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). In line with the above consideration, both methods were utilised in this research.

Number of factors extracted. A decision on how many factors to be extracted is based on a number of criteria (Hair et al., 2010). Eigenvalue rule (or latent root criterion) is one of the most widely used criteria, where only factors with eigenvalue greater than 1 are considered significant and thus can be retained (Hair et al., 2010). Eigenvalue represents the amount of variance accounted for by this factor (or component) (Netemeyer et al., 2003). The use of eigenvalue to decide the number of factors to extract is most reliable when the number of items is between 20 and 50. Another technique that can be used is scree test criterion. This entails plotting the eigenvalues versus the number of factors and the retention decision is based on the shape of the resulting curve. More specifically, the number of factors to be retained is based upon the point at which the curve begins to straighten (i.e. the elbow) (Hair et al., 2010). A third psychometric criterion involves the amount of variance being explained by the factors extracted. According to Hair et al. (2010) and Hinkin (1998), the number of factors extracted should account for 60% or higher of the total variance. The final criterion involves a priori criterion that is consistent with the underlying theory. In general, researchers should use several criteria in addition to the underlying theory in deciding the number of factors to extract (Hinkin, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Thus, multiple decision rules were utilised to determine the underlying dimensions of the focal construct.

Rotational method used. After the number of factors is extracted, a rotational method is then employed to obtain a simpler, meaningful and more interpretable factor structure (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). There are two basic types of rotational methods: orthogonal rotations and oblique rotations. Whereas oblique rotations allow factors to correlate, orthogonal rotations assume the interdependence between the factors. The popular approach of orthogonal rotation is varimax, whereas direct oblimin and promax are the most widely used techniques in oblique rotation. There are no specific rules, however, to guide the selection of specific orthogonal or oblique rotational approach (Hair et al., 2010). Oblique rotation was used for a number of reasons. First, with the high probability of correlated factors, orthogonal rotation forces an unrealistic solution whereas oblique rotation is more likely to reflect the reality and to produce a simple factor structure (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Hair et al., 2010). Second, an oblique rotation results in a “more meaningful theoretical factors” (Netemeyer et al., 2003: 125) and “simple, interpretive solution” (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003:153). Third, orthogonal rotation may not be suitable to confirmatory factor analysis as forcing zero correlations may lead to underidentifciation problems (Netemeyer et al., 2003).

6.7.5.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Gerbing and Anderson (1988) extended the scale development paradigm (e.g. Churchill, 1979) to incorporate confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Whereas EFA is a useful preliminary technique for scale construction, CFA is crucial in the later stages of scale development (Floyd & Widaman, 1995; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Netemeyer et al., 2003). CFA primarily differs from EFA in that prior to using the statistical analysis the factor structure should be specified (Hair et al., 2010). That is, unlike EFA, CFA is theory-driven. CFA model specifies the relationship between the observed variables and their underling latent constructs (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). CFA was employed in this research for a number of reasons. First, is to assess subscales unidimensionality which is considered a prerequisite to reliability and construct validity (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Hinkin, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Rubio et al., 2001). Second, is to confirm or reject the factor model specified by EFA (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Third, is to trim the items that may threaten the dimensionality of the scale (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Fourth, is to assess the construct's composite reliability and both convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

6.7.5.6.1 Reflective Versus Formative Indicator Measurement Models

Mackenzie et al. (2005) proposed that before estimating the measurement and the structural models, the exact relationship between the construct and its measures (i.e. reflective or formative) need to be carefully considered. Determining the exact nature of construct-indicator relations is important because results vary across formative and reflective models. Jarvis et al. (2003) demonstrated that the parameters estimated from a misspecified measurement model are biased and any structural relationships concluded are erroneous. Guided by Mackenzie et al. (2005) and Jarvis et al. (2003), CBI was specified as a reflective second-order construct with three reflective first-order dimensions. It is expected that all the dimensions covary with one another (Jarvis et al., 2003). Prior identification empirical studies showed that all dimensions are highly interrelated (Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Lam et al., 2012) but distinct (Van Dick et al., 2004). This implies that the three dimensions are more likely to share variance and to be driven by a single underlying construct or theme, which is CBI. An individual who feels an affective association towards a particular marketing entity is more likely to have a positive self-evaluation of that marketing entity (Van Dick et al., 2004). Following Cadogan and Lee (2013) and Lee and Cadogan (2013), a reflective conceptualisation of CBI is more appropriate compared to the formative conceptualisation of brand identification as advanced by Lam et al. (2010).

6.7.5.6.2 Unidimensionality of Measures

A construct can be postulated as unidimensional or multidimensional (Netemeyer et al., 2003). A measure is considered unidimensional when a set of observed variables (indicators) has only one underlying construct or factor (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). Unidimensional measures consist of a number of indicators with both cross loadings and covariance among error terms constrained to zero (Hair et al., 2010). Measure unidimensionality is "crucial undertaking in theory testing and development" (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988: 414). A construct is multidimensional when it consists of a number of distinct but related dimensions treated as an overall abstraction (Law et al., 1998). Several traditional techniques have been utilised to assess the scale's unidimensionality such as item-total correlations, coefficient alpha, and exploratory factor analysis (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Netemeyer et al., 2003). However, CFA method provides "a stricter interpretation of undimensionality than can be provided by more traditional methods" (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988: 186). Cronbach coefficient alpha is the most widely measure used to assess the scale's internal consistency and is often misinterpreted as a unidimentionality test (Clark &Watson, 1995; Rubio et al., 2001). Cronbach alpha "is not a measure of undimensionality" (Netemeyer et al., 2003: 55) and should be used only after undimensionality is established (Clark & Watson, 1995; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Hinkin, 1998). According to Netemeyer et al. (2003: 9), the scale's unidimensionality "is considered a prerequisite to reliability and validity". Coefficient alpha assesses the extent to which the items that make up a scale are intercorrelated (Clark & Watson, 1995). Although there are no specific statistical criteria as what is the minimum acceptable level of Cronbach alpha, some rules exist (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Nunnally (1978) suggested .70 as the lowest acceptable bound for alpha while Robinson et al. (1991) considered an alpha score of .80 or better as exemplary. Clark and Watson (1995) proposed a coefficient level of at least .80 for a new scale whilst Devellis et al. (2003: 95) considered an alpha score below .60 as unacceptable, between .60 and .65 as undesirable, between .65 and .70 as minimally acceptable, between .70 and .80 as minimally respectable, and between .80 and .90 as very good. It is important to note that coefficient alpha is function of both the number of items and redundancy of item wording (Netemeyer et al., 2003). That is, coefficient alpha can be artificially maximised despite the dimensionality of the measure (Rubio et al., 2001). Although EFA can determine the number of factors and indicate the loadings of different items, the number of factors underlying a construct and the size of the loadings do not provide an assessment of undimensionality (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Rubio et al., 2001). Further, Hunter and Gerbing (1982: 273) stated that EFA is "a poor ending point for the construction of unidimensional scales".

6.7.5.6.3 Measurement Model Assessment

The measurement model specifies the relationships between the observed variables (indicators) and the latent constructs involved in the model (Hair et al., 2010). The measurement model was assessed using three criteria (a) assessment of fit, (b) significance of parameter estimates, and (c) construct validity. Each criterion is discussed in detail in the following sections.

(a) Fit Assessment

Numerous fit indices can be used to assess how well the specified model fits the data (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). Chi-square ($\chi2$) is the most popular goodness of fit index (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 2003) and is used to measure the difference between the estimated covariance matrix (theory) and the observed covariance matrix (reality) (Hair et al., 2010). In contrast to other statistical techniques, large $\chi2$ values and small p-value imply statistically significant discrepancy between the two matrices that is imperfect model fit. However, a significant chi square is easily obtained in case of large sample size (generally above 200) or many variables and degrees of freedom (model complexity) (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). A number of fit indices have been developed to address the chi-square limitations and are recommended as additional measures of model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Fit indices are broadly classified into absolute fit indices, incremental fit indices, and parsimony fit indices. The more common reported fit measures in each of the three classifications are discussed

Absolute fit indices assess how well a specified model reproduces the sample data (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1998). Absolute fit measures include normed chi-square, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardised root mean residual (SRMR). Normed chi-square is the chi-square value divided by the degrees of freedom. Marsh and Hocevar (1985) recommended ratios as low as 2 or as high as 5 to indicate an acceptable model fit, taking into account the sample size. GFI values range from 0 to 1, where higher values indicate better model fit. Research has shown that GFI is sensitive to sample size (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Although no absolute threshold levels have been established, values greater than .90 are deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2010). An absolute fit index that has received wider level of acceptance and attempts to overcome vulnerability of chi-square test to sample size and model complexity is RMSEA (Hair et al., 2010). It can be categorised as a badness-of-fit index where lower values imply better model fit, that is values of .06 and less are desirable (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Hair et al. (2010) recommended values less than .08 with sample size less than 250 while values less than .07 with sample size greater than 250. SRMR values range from 0 to 1(Byrne, 2010) where values of .05 or less are considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1998)

Incremental (or comparative) fit indices assess the model fit by comparing the target model with baseline (null) model. In the most typical used baseline model, all observed variables are uncorrelated with each other (Hu & Bentler, 1998). The most widely reported incremental fit indices are Tucker-lewis index (TLI) and comparative fit index (CFI) (Hair et al., 2010). TLI is relatively insensitive to model complexity, where higher values imply better fit and low values indicate poor model fit. TLI values can fall below 0 and above 1 as it is not normed (Hair et al., 2010). The recommended cut-off value for TLI is close to .95 (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1998; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). CFI is relatively invulnerable to both sample size and model complexity. Values of CFI range between 0 and 1 where values above .90 (Hair et al., 2010) and ideally greater than .95 (Hu & Bentler, 1998) are indicative of good model fit.

Parsimony fit measures compare competing models with different number of estimated parameters (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Parsimony fit indices consider not only the fit of the model but also the model parsimony (Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). These indices are useful in comparing the fit of two or more models, normally one complex compared to the other (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Parsimony fit indices include, but not limited to, parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) and parsimony comparative fit index (PCFI) (Byrne, 2010). PNFI and PCFI adjust the normed fit index and comparative fit index respectively by multiplying it times the parsimonious ratio (PR). Models with relatively higher values are indicative of relatively better model fit (Hair et al., 2010). Although no absolute threshold levels exist, values above .5 are considered adequate (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It is worth noting that using three to four indices can provide adequate evidence of model fit. That is, in addition to the $\chi 2$ value and degrees of freedom, at least one absolute index and one incremental index should be reported (Hair et al., 2010). Consequently, several indices were used to help in making an informed decision.

(b) Significance of Parameter Estimates

Parameter estimates assessment, which is the relationship between the indicators and their latent constructs, is considered a fundamental issue in measurement model evaluation (Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Item loadings are interpreted in terms of magnitude and statistical significance (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Specifically, items are performing adequately when the parameter estimates are significant and the size of the loadings is at least .5 and ideally .7 or higher. Nonsignificant estimates and/or low loadings suggest that an item is candidate for deletion (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). Items with high loadings (much above .9) are also not desirable as they may be an indicative of item redundancy and may result in correlated measurement error and thus lower model fit (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Two more issues regarding items loadings should be considered. First, the sign (positive or negative) of the item loading should be consistent with the postulated model. Second, the standardised loadings should be within the feasible range. Loadings above 1.0 or below -1.0 indicate a problem with the model. In addition to item loadings, squared multiple correlations values (i.e. communalities or variance extracted) represent how well an item serves as measure of the latent factor (Hair et al., 2010).

(c) Construct Validity

Construct validity is the degree to which a set of observed variables actually measures the latent construct it is intended to measure (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Clark and Watson (1995: 310) stated that “the most precise and efficient measures are those with established construct validity; they are manifestations of constructs in an articulated theory that is well supported by empirical data”. That is, construct validity is concerned with the measurement accuracy (Hair et al., 2010). Content validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity, predictive validity, and nomological validity are the most widely reported forms of construct validity (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). CFA is primarily useful for assessing convergent and discriminant validity while structural equation modelling (SEM) provides an assessment of predictive and nomological validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which indicators of the same construct converge, or are highly correlated (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Convergent validity can be assessed using three criteria. First, the standardised loading of each indicator on its intended factor is significant and at least .5 and ideally greater than .7 (Hair et al., 2010). Another indicator of convergent validity is composite (or construct) reliability (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Values greater than .7 indicate good reliability and values between .6 and .7 reflect acceptable levels of reliability (Hair et al., 2010). The average variance extracted (AVE) is also an indicator of convergent validity. AVE reflects the average amount of variance that a latent construct explains in the manifest items (Hair et al., 2010). Convergent validity is established when AVE is equal or greater than .5 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a construct is distinct from other different yet related constructs (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Discriminant validity can be examined using three ways. First, if the confidence interval (+ two standard errors) around the correlation estimate between two latent constructs does not contain a value of 1.0 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), then discriminant validity is supported. Another way to assess discriminant validity is by constraining the parameter estimate between two constructs to one (constrained model) and comparing it with an unconstrained model where this parameter is freely estimated. Discriminant validity is established if the chi-square value of the unconstrained model is significantly lower than the chi-square value of the constrained model. This test should be undertaken for only one pair of constructs at a time (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Fornell and Larcker (1981) rigorous test can also be used to assess discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is achieved if the average variance extracted for each construct is greater than the square of the correlation between these two constructs.

6.7.5.6.4 Measurement Model Respecification

Measurement model modification or respecification is mostly performed when there is a poor model fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Respecification decisions should be taken in line with the theoretical foundations rather than solely statistical considerations (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). Modifications can be undertaken by examining standardised residuals (SRs) and modification indices (MIs). Residuals reflect discrepancies between the observed covariance matrix and the estimated covariance matrix (Netemeyer et al., 2003; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). SRs are the raw or fitted residuals divided by their standard error (Byrne, 2010). SRs greater than 4 indicate a substantial prediction error and the most likely solution to overcome this problem is to drop the most problematic indicators (Hair et al., 2010).

MIs are also useful in the detection of specification errors. MIs are reported for only nonfree parameters (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) and represent the approximate decrease in chi-square when a parameter of interest is freed (Netemeyer et al., 2003). MIs equal or greater than 4.0 suggest that the model fit could be improved by allowing this parameter to be freely estimated (Hair et al., 2010). MIs associated with factor loadings and error terms between items provide useful information that can help in model fit improvement. A model can be modified by freeing one or more of the error terms or the item loadings, however, this may violate the congeneric measurement model assumptions. Thus, such items are considered candidates for deletion to ensure unidimensionality (Hair et al., 2010).

6.8 Initial Validation Study (2nd Sample)

The objective of the second study is to further examine the dimensionality of the construct and to evaluate the reliability and validity (convergent and discriminant) of the newly refined scale using a new sample and different product categories and brands. The next subsections of the chapter outline the sampling process, questionnaire design, quantitative data analysis techniques with respect to the second study.

6.8.1 Sampling process

Similar to the sampling process utilised in the first study, this study employed convenience sampling by using the services of Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT). Based on the arguments previously presented (see Section 6.7.1.3), a sample size of at least 250 was deemed suitable for both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis.

The sampling process of this study was exactly similar to the one employed in the scale development study (1st study).

6.8.2 Selected Product Categories and Brands

As previously outlined in Section 6.7.2, the product categories and brands were selected based on the familiarity scores and frequency of brands listed. Specifically, in each study, two product categories and two brands for each product category were selected. The results of product categories and brands pretest are discussed in Chapter Seven.

6.8.3 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire design process, following the steps outlined by Malhotra and Birks (2006), is discussed in detail below.

6.8.3.1 Information Needed

As previously mentioned, the purpose of the second study is to examine the dimensionality, reliability, and validity of the refined scale. This questionnaire was used to obtain three types of information. The first type of information that this study sought to collect was screening information that helps to determine the respondent eligibility to complete the questionnaire. Respondents were screened with respect to their familiarity with four different brands. The second type of information was the basic information that relates directly to the research objectives. This section of the questionnaire collected data on the newly refined scale together with the two commonly used scales of consumer identification in the marketing literature to be used in examining convergent validity. Data was also collected on similar but distinct constructs (e.g. involvement, brand loyalty) to examine discriminant validity. The final type of information required was the classification information that is primarily used to classify the respondents.

6.8.3.2 Type of Survey and Method of Administration

Similar to the first study, web-based/internet self-administered survey was deemed the most suitable approach to data collection.

6.8.3.3 Content of Individual Questions

The questionnaire was divided into three main sections. The introductory section was designed to screen out the respondents who are not eligible to answer the questionnaire. The first question "Please select the brand you are most familiar with" screened the participants to ensure their familiarity with one of the brands. Respondents selecting "none of them" were excluded from the survey by directing them to the end of the survey. The second question measured the respondents' degree of familiarity with the brand selected using a three-item, seven point sematic differential scale adapted from Oliver and Bearden (1985) and Kennedy et al. (2001). If the respondent selected 3or below for any of the items, he or she was directed to the end of the survey. This implies that they are not familiar with the brand (Malär et al., 2011).

Not at all informed - Highly informed
Very unfamiliar – Very familiar
Know nothing at all- Know a great deal

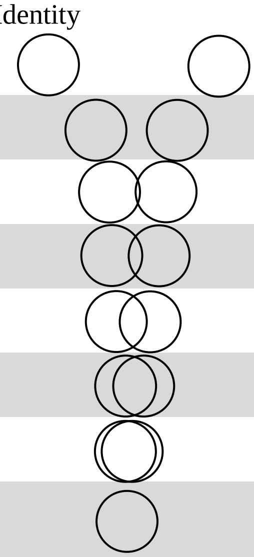
Table 6.4 Items of Brand Familiarity Scale (Initial Validation Study)

The second section of the questionnaire included the basic questions that are closely related to the research objectives (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Three types of questions were included in the basic section. The first contained 26 Likert scale items of the newly refined scale. These items were included to further purify the scale and examine its reliability and validity. The second type of question included 8 items of the two popular scales that are used to measure consumer identification in the marketing literature. These were included to assess the convergent validity of the scale. The final type of questions included 47 items of related but distinct constructs. They were included to examine the discriminant validity between the newly refined scale and other constructs. The conceptual distinction between CBI and other constructs was presented in detail in Chapter Four. The final section of the questionnaire included a range of demographic characteristics and three items of the marker variable construct to control for common method bias. All the items used for the measurement scales were based on empirically validated scales from previous studies. The items associated with all the constructs are presented below.

(a) Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) identification scale: The scale consists of two items developed to measure the extent of perceived overlap between the individual's identity and the brand's identity. The visual item includes a series of Venn diagrams indicating the extent of overlap between one's self and the brand's identity and respondents are

required to choose the level of overlap that best reflects their relationship with the brand. The verbal item is a seven-point scale anchored by “not at all” and “extremely”.

1. Please indicate the extent to which your own sense of who you are (i.e. personal identity) overlap with your sense of what the brand represents (i.e. brand’s identity)?
2. Imagine that the circle at the left in each row represents your own personal identity and the other circle, at the right, represents the [brand’s] identity. Please indicate which case (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, or H) best describes the level of overlap between your own and the [brand’s] identity. Please circle the most appropriate letter.



	My Identity / Brand’s Identity	
A		Far Apart
B		Close Together but Separate
C		Very Small Overlap
D		Small Overlap
E		Moderate Overlap
F		Large Overlap
G		Very Large Overlap
H		Complete Overlap

Table 6.5 Items of Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) Identification Scale (Initial Validation Study)

(b)Mael and Ashforth (1992) identification scale: One of the most commonly used scales to measure consumer identification in the marketing literature is Mael and Ashforth (1992) organisational identification scale. The scale consists of a six-item, seven-point Likert scale anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree”.

1. If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.
2. When someone criticises this brand, it feels like a personal insult.
3. I am very interested in what others think about this brand.
4. When I talk about this brand, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.
5. This brand's successes are my successes.
6. When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.

Table 6.6 Items of Mael and Ashforth (1992) Identification Scale (Initial Validation Study)

(c)Product involvement. This scale was measured using a six-item, seven point semantic differential scale developed by Zaichkowsky (1985) and widely used in other studies (e.g. Brakus et al., 2009; Thomson et al., 2005).

1.Unimportant to me - important to me,
2. Of no concern to me - of concern to me
3. Irrelevant to me - relevant to me
4. Means nothing to me - means a lot to me
5.Useless to me - useful to me
6.Insignificant to me - significant to me

Table 6.7 Items of Product Involvement Scale (Initial Validation Study)

(d)Brand Attitude. This scale was measured using a three-item, seven point semantic differential scale adopted from Park et al. (2010) and Russell (2002).

1. Bad - Good
2. Negative – Positive
3. Dislike- Like

Table 6.8 Items of Brand Attitude Scale (Initial Validation Study)

(e) Customer Satisfaction. The scale used to measure customer satisfaction was adapted from Bettencourt (1997). The construct was measured using a three-item, seven-point Likert scale.

1. Compared to other brands, I am very satisfied with this brand. 2. My experiences with this brand have always been pleasant 3. Based on all my experience with this brand, I am very satisfied.

Table 6.9 Items of Customer Satisfaction Scale (Initial Validation Study)

(f) Brand loyalty. To measure brand loyalty, a three-item scale developed by You and Donthu (2001) was used. All items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale.

1. This brand would be my first choice. 2. I consider myself to be loyal to this brand. 3. I will not buy other brands if this brand is available at the store.

Table 6.10 Items of Brand Loyalty Scale (Initial Validation Study)

(g)Brand Commitment. To capture brand commitment, a three-item scale developed by Coulter et al. (2003) was used. All items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale.

1. I am really attached to this brand. 2. I am committed to this brand. 3. I stick with this brand because I know it is the best for me.

Table 6.11 Items of Brand Commitment Scale (Initial Validation Study)

(h) Actual (or ideal) self-congruence. Actual self-congruence was measured by using the scale of Sirgy et al. (1997) and was adapted to measure ideal self-congruence in line with Malär et al. (2011) suggestions. This scale was operationalised using a two-stage procedure in which respondents think about and describe the brand's personality as if it were a person, and then respondents were instructed to think about their actual (ideal) selves and elaborate on their own personality. After respondents completed this, they indicated the extent to which the brand's personality matches with how they see themselves. The same procedure was used for ideal self-congruence.

Take a moment to think about this brand. Describe this brand using personality characteristics such as reliable, smooth, etc. Now think about how you see yourself (your actual self). What kind of person are you? How would you describe your personality ?Once you have done this, indicate your agreement or disagreement to the following statements: The personality of this brand is a mirror image of me (my actual self). The personality of this brand is consistent with how I see myself (my actual self).

Table 6.12 Items of Actual Self-Congruence Scale (Initial Validation Study)

Take a moment to think about this brand. Describe this brand using personality characteristics such as reliable, smooth, etc. Now think about how you would like to see yourself (your ideal self). What kind of person you would like to be? Once you have done this, indicate your agreement or disagreement to the following statements: The personality of this brand is a mirror image of the person I would like to be (my ideal self). The personality of this brand is consistent with how I would like to be (my ideal self).

Table 6.13 Items of Ideal Self-Congruence Scale (Initial Validation Study)

(i) Brand Trust. This scale was measured using a four-item, seven-point Likert scale adopted from Sirdeshmukh et al. (2002) and Sichtmann (2007).

1. This brand is trustworthy. 2. This brand is competent 3. This brand is of high integrity 4. This brand is very responsive to customers.

Table 6.14 Items of Brand Trust Scale (Initial Validation Study)

6.8.3.4 Pretest and Revise the Questionnaire

Similar to the first study, the pretest was conducted in two stages. At the first stage, the questionnaire was administered to five doctoral students at different universities in UK. At the second stage, ten participants from Amazon Mechanical Turk completed the survey. The pilot study of the second questionnaire is presented in Appendix B4. The respondents provided useful comments regarding the clarity and ambiguity of several items, instructions as well as the overall layout of the questionnaire. Some adjustments were made to some of the items and the overall layout of the questionnaire. An important observation at this stage was the existence of a problem with the progress bar. Respondents pointed out that the progress bar does not match the motivational statements. The progress bar was added to the questionnaire to give the respondents an indication of their progress. It was actually noted that the progress bar does not show the actual progress because of the presence of branch and filter questions. Following this observation, the screening questions were modified.

6.8.4 Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures

The purpose of this study is to replicate all the analysis that was conducted in the first study. EFA was used to re-examine the factor structure and further prune the remaining items. CFA was utilised to verify the dimensionality of the scale. CFA was also used to assess the scale's convergent and discriminant validity. Reliability was examined using both coefficient alpha and composite reliability. The measurement model was evaluated and modified using fit indices, significance of parameter estimates, construct validity, and standardised residuals and modification indices. A comprehensive CFA marker technique was employed for controlling common method bias. Additional testing of measurement invariance of the new scale across both products categories was undertaken in this study.

Measurement invariance (or equivalence) refers to "whether or not, under different conditions of observing and studying phenomena (e.g. countries, cultures, products, and industries), measurement operations yield measures of the same attribute" (Horn & McArdle, 1992: 117). The central idea underlying the measurement invariance is that the relationship between the observed variables and their underlying construct is invariant or equivalent across groups (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). The overall sample can be divided into groups according to meaningful characteristics (Hair et al., 2010). As Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998: 87) stated, "lack of evidence of measurement invariance equivocates conclusion and casts doubt on the theory". Accordingly, testing the invariance of the new measure of CBI across different product categories was conducted.

In line with Hair et al. (2010) recommendations, two different levels of invariance (i.e. configural and metric) were analysed to assess if the CBI construct is perceived and used in a similar manner across different products. Configural invariance confirms that the same factor structure exists in all the groups together with a satisfactory model fit and construct validity (Hair et al., 2010). It requires at a minimum that the same pattern of fixed and nonfixed parameters across groups exists (Netemeyer et al., 2003). If the specified model shows a reasonable fit in all groups, all loadings to their underlying factors are significant, and discriminant validity between the dimensions of the focal construct exists, then configural invariance is supported (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). This model then becomes the baseline for comparison with subsequent constrained models (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Metric invariance is a stronger and critical test of invariance (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) and involves equivalent factor loadings across samples (Netemeyer et al., 2003). As the loadings reflect the relationship between the observed variables and the latent construct, invariant loadings across samples imply that the construct's items have the same meaning across products (Hair et al., 2010).

In general, measurement invariance is tested hierarchically (Netemeyer et al., 2003) and involves a series of model comparisons with increasingly restrictive constrains (Hair et al., 2010). This hierarchal sequence starts with the least restrictive model. Further tests of invariance can be analysed only if configural invariance is supported. To test for metric invariance, the loadings are constrained to be the same across groups creating a more restrictive model (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). The chi-square values for the baseline model and the constrained model in which equality constraints have been imposed are then compared. If the chi-square difference value is nonsignificant, metric invariance is achieved (Byrne, 2010). Because full measurement invariance does not often hold, it has been advocated that partial measurement invariance is acceptable (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Partial metric invariance does not require all factor loadings to be equivalent across different groups before other invariance tests can be conducted (Netemeyer et al., 2003; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). More precisely, if two parameter estimates per construct (in this case factor loading) are founded to be equivalent across groups, partial metric invariance is supported and can be followed with the next stage.

6.9 Phase Three –Final Validation Study (3rd Sample)

The purpose of the third study is to validate the CBI scale in two ways. First, replicate the confirmatory factor structure on an independent sample, thereby providing evidence of measurement model stability across independent samples. Second, establish evidence of nomological validity by examining the relationships between CBI and a number of potential antecedents and consequences (see Chapter 5 for more details about the proposed antecedents and consequences). In the following subsections, the sampling process of this study is discussed.

6.9.1 Sampling Process

This section addresses issues related to the target population, sampling frame, sampling method and sample size. These issues are covered in the next subsections.

6.9.1.1Target population and Sampling Frame

Consumers in the United Kingdom, who have a regular contact with one of the service categories examined in this study, represent the population of interest in this study. A main issue which needed to be solved was the development of an adequate sampling frame from which to choose a sample. Cameo, a global classification system developed by call credit information group, links postcode and address information to demographic, lifestyle and socioeconomic characteristics. The central idea underlying Cameo classification is that a set of areas share similar demographic, social, and lifestyle characteristics. Cameo UK provides an accurate segmentation of over 50 million consumers into 10 key groups based on financial, lifestyle, attitudinal, and technological characteristics. To address the objective of this research that examines the extent to which consumer identify with service brands and for ease of administration, it was decided to focus on the first five groups described by Cameo which are the highest in terms of income, lifestyle and use of technology. Moreover, in the light of information availability, time and financial constraints, it was decided to limit the survey to Hull and Beverley area. Unfortunately, funds were not available for the purchase of a detailed list of Cameo classification of neighbourhood groups in this specific area (i.e. Hull and Beverley). A manual technique of identifying postcodes and streets and linking them to the five groups described by Cameo was undertaken. More precisely, 192.com, which is a British company that publishes information on people in the UK, links every street in each postcode with its underlying group in Cameo Classification. Every street in Hull and Beverly was then allocated to a Cameo group. From these streets, which correspond well with Cameo profiles and representative of those five groups, a final selection of streets was chosen to give a representative sample of the different groups. A detailed discussion of the steps undertaken to select the sample is presented in a later section.

6.9.1.2 Sampling Method

This study adopted the stratified random sampling technique. Stratified random sampling refers to the division of the target population into groups called strata and the samples are then drawn randomly from each stratum (Hair et al., 2003). There are two common methods for drawing samples from the strata, namely, proportionate stratified sampling and disproportionate stratified sampling. In proportionate stratified sampling, the sample size selected from each stratum relies on the stratum’s size relative to the target population. On the other side, in disproportionate stratified sampling, the sample size selected from each stratum is independent of the stratum's percentage of the target population. This approach is adopted when the relative importance of the subgroups to the research contradicts with the stratum's percentage of the target population (Hair et al., 2003).

Stratified random sampling assures that the population is well represented in the sample (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Other advantages of stratified sampling are simplicity (Malhotra & Birks, 2006) and precision (Hair et al., 2003). Proportionate stratified sampling technique was employed in this study for a number of reasons. First, to overcome any shortcomings of the sampling method employed in the first two studies by using a probability sampling technique. Second, to ensure that the target population is highly represented in the sample, that is the characteristics of the sample are proportional to the target population. Third, to obtain more accurate results by reducing the personal bias of the researcher and sample error as a result of increasing the likelihood that the sample size of each group is dependent on its percentage of the target population.

6.9.1.3 Sample Size

A number of rules have been proposed for determining the sample size required to conduct structural equation modelling (SEM). Ding et al. (1995) suggested that there is an agreement among studies that 100 to 150 is the minimum appropriate sample size for SEM (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Hair et al. (2010) proposed that the sample size ranges from 100 to 500 based on the number of constructs, indicators and communalities. In line with previous studies (e.g. Brakus et al., 2009; Brocato et al., 2012; He & Li, 2011; Marin & Ruiz, 2007), it can be considered that a sample size of 250 is satisfactory for SEM. Given that this study was applied on two different groups of service brands, the total sample size needed was about 500. A detailed discussion of the selected service categories is presented in a later section. Guided by a number of studies (e.g. Cobanoglu, 2001; Deutskens et al., 2006; Griffis et al., 2003) which yielded an average response rate ranging from 10% to 20%, a sample size of 5000 was required (i.e. N x 10%= 500). The response rate was also determined based on discussions with other doctoral students who have conducted similar research in Hull area.

6.9.1.4 Stratification Process

Following the steps outlined by Hair et al. (2003), a number of steps were employed to select the research sample. First, consumers in Hull and Beverly area were divided into strata based on Cameo classification of UK consumers. The five strata are (a) affluent singles and couples in exclusive urban neighbourhoods, (b) wealthy neighbourhoods nearing and enjoying retirement, (c) affluent home owning couples and families in large houses, (d) suburban home owners in smaller private family homes, and (e) comfortable mixed tenure neighbourhoods. Second, the desired sample of 5000 consumers was drawn from each stratum based on the stratum's size relative to the target population. This percentage was specified by Cameo as follows: (a) affluent singles and couples in exclusive urban neighbourhoods (3.5/41.7 x 5000 =420), (b) wealthy neighbourhoods nearing and enjoying retirement (3.6/41.7 x 5000= 432), (c) affluent home owning couples and families in large houses (11.4/41.7 x 5000= 1367), (d) suburban home owners in smaller private family homes (13.7/41.7 x 5000= 1642), and (e) comfortable mixed tenure neighbourhoods (9.5 /41.7 x 5000= 1139). Third, after allocating the streets in Hull and Beverley to each stratum, the total number of houses in each street was determined. The streets that included the highest number of houses were chosen. A random or systematic selection of houses in each street was difficult to be applied given the limited time and financial resources available. It was found that many streets include just a few number of houses making it difficult to distribute to these streets. In addition, it was found that the houses in Beverley and some areas in Hull are scattered making it difficult to select houses systematically.

6.9.2 Research Setting

To enhance the generalisability and robustness of the CBI scale, the focus of this study is on consumers' identification with service brands. Several conceptual classification of services have been proposed in prior studies (Gwinner et al., 1998), however, Bowen (1990) developed an empirically based taxonomy for grouping services based on a cluster analysis of consumers' perceptions of services. Specifically, Bowen (1990) classified the services into three distinct groups. Group 1 comprises those services directed at people and characterised by high customer contact with customised personal service solutions (e.g. financial services, travel agencies, hair care services, and restaurants). In this group, the employee's knowledge of the job, appearance and attitudes have a great influence on consumers' perceptions of the quality of services provided. Group 2 includes services directed at an individual's property, characterised by moderate customer contact with semi-customised non-personal service solutions (e.g. appliance repair, dry cleaning services, shoe repair, and pest control). Group 3 contains those services directed at people and considered to have moderate customer contact with standardised services (e.g. airlines, cafeterias, grocery stores, hotels, and fast food chains) (Bowen, 1990; Gwinner et al., 1998). For the purpose of this study, Bowen's (1990) service typology was used to categorise services into distinct types. Given the time and resources constraints, this study focused on examining consumers' identification with service brands in the first and third groups only. Those two groups are considered appropriate settings for the current study as both groups are directed at people rather than their properties and vary with respect to customer contact and the extent to which the services are customised.

6.9.3 Questionnaire Design

This section describes the questionnaire development process in detail, following the steps outlined by Malhotra and Birks (2006).

6.9.3.1 Information Needed

In general, three types of information were collected through the questionnaire driven by the research objectives (Hair et al., 2003). The first type of information that this study sought to collect was screening information. Respondents were screened with respect to their regular use of one of the service types listed to determine their eligibility to answer the questionnaire. The second type of information related directly to the research objectives. This study is concerned with confirming the dimensionality of the new scale and re-examining its convergent and discriminant validity on a new sample. More importantly, it aims at examining the nomological validity of the scale. This part of the questionnaire collected data on the remaining items of the newly developed scale to confirm the scale's dimensionality and validity (i.e. convergent and discriminant validity). Data was also obtained on a numbers of constructs representing the potential drivers and outcomes of brand identification which was then used in assessing the nomological validity of the scale. The final type of information related to selected demographic characteristics that can be used to create a descriptive profile of respondents.

6.9.3.2 Type of Survey and Method of Administration

Several data collection methods were evaluated taking into account their advantages and disadvantages and also taking into consideration the information needed for this study and the location of the sample. In-home interviews, which is a structured question and answer in the respondent’s home, was considered but was rejected due to potential problems associated with this method. First, in-home interviews are expensive and time consuming. Second, many respondents may find it inconvenient to grant interviews when first visited, therefore it is hard to reach people without contacting them previously. Finally, in-home interviews are subject to the interviewer bias (Hair et al., 2003). Telephone interviews were also considered but the researcher failed to get the telephone number of houses in the streets selected. In addition, since many questions and multiple responses were needed from each respondent, telephone interviews would have been difficult and time consuming to achieve the research objectives (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Direct mail surveys were deemed a suitable approach at the beginning but were rejected for two main reasons. First, the researcher failed to secure funds to mail the questionnaire to all the houses in the streets selected. Second, obtaining a valid mailing list of potential respondents was not possible without purchasing them.

Given the above difficulties, drop-off surveys were used in this study. In this method, a representative of the researcher hand-delivers the questionnaires to respondents or drops the questionnaire in the mailbox and the respondents are then requested to return the completed questionnaire by mail (Hair et al., 2003). The package included the outgoing envelope, cover letter, questionnaire, and return prepaid envelope (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Drop-off surveys have the advantage of allowing the respondents to complete the questionnaire at their convenient time. It also overcomes the problem of interviewer bias that may be present in telephone and in-home interviews (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Other advantages of drop-off surveys include screening potential respondents, ensuring the respondents availability in the houses, and motivating the respondents to complete the questionnaire. One of the disadvantages of drop-off surveys includes the time and financial resources associated with printing, labelling, folding, stuffing envelopes and preparing the return envelopes (Cobanoglu et al., 2001). One major drawback of mail surveys discussed in the literature is low response rate and consequently the occurrence of nonresponse bias (Dillman, 1972; Hair et al., 2003; Jobber et al., 2004). In order to overcome the shortcomings associated with the adopted data collection method, several techniques recommended by the literature were taken into consideration. A detailed discussion of the techniques used to enhance the response rate is presented in a later section.

6.9.3.3 Content of Individual Questions

The content of individual questions included in the questionnaire was decided based on the hypotheses and the conceptualisation of the constructs as presented in Chapter Five. The first section of the questionnaire included screening questions.

Respondents were directed to think about the brands they deal with in the service categories listed. Then, they were asked to write down the name of the specific service provider that they deal with on a regular basis. The respondents who do not deal with a specific service provider on a regular basis were excluded from the survey. Respondents were further screened to ensure that those who respond to questionnaire are UK citizens. The question therefore asked respondents: “How long have you been living in the UK?”, respondents who selected “6-10 years”, “1-5 years”, or “less than 1 year” were excluded from the survey.

The second section of the questionnaire included the remaining items of the newly developed scale, the items of a commonly used scale to measure cognitive consumer identification, and the measurement items for the antecedents and consequences under investigation in this research. The third section of the questionnaire contained a range of demographic questions including gender, age, income, and educational level. This information is useful in gaining a better understanding of the respondents’ descriptive profile. In addition, this section included three items of the marker variable construct to assess common method bias. Each construct in the conceptual model was operationalised using a set of items that reflect the construct conceptualisation. Using multiple items measures serve better than single item scales in representing the conceptualised constructs of interest since measurement error tends to decrease as the number of items increase (Churchill, 1979). For the constructs considered, measures that have proven to be reliable and valid were borrowed from previous studies. The measurement items selected for each construct are presented in detail below.

(a) Customer orientation. This scale was measured using five-item, seven point Likert scale , anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree”, adapted from Thomas et al. (2001) and previously used in other studies in the service context (e.g. Guenzi & Georges, 2010; Homburg et al., 2009).

[Service Provider’s] salespeople try to figure out what a customer’s needs are.
[Service Provider’s] salespeople have the customer’s best interests in mind
[Service Provider’s] salespeople take a problem solving approach in selling products or services to customers.
[Service Provider’s] salespeople recommend products or services that are best suited to solving the customer’s problems.
[Service Provider’s] salespeople try to find out which kinds of products or services would be most helpful to customers.

Table 6.15 Items of Customer Orientation Scale (Final Validation Study)

(b) Economic preferential treatment. To capture economic preferential treatment, a four-item scale adopted from De Wulf et al. (2001) and Palmatier et al. (2007) was used. All items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale.

Service provider rewards regular customers for their patronage.
Service provider offers regular customers something extra because they keep buying there.
Service provider offers discounts to regular customers for their patronage.
Service provider offers special financial benefits and incentives to regular customer for their patronage.

Table 6.16 Items of Economic Preferential Treatment Scale (Final Validation Study)

(c) Customised preferential treatment. The scale used to measure customised preferential treatment was adapted from Bettencourt (1997). The construct was measured using a four-item, seven-point Likert scale.

Service provider makes more efforts for regular customers than for nonregular customer.
Service provider offers better service to regular customers than to nonregular customers.
Service provider does more for regular customers than for nonregular customers.
Service provider offers special treatments to regular customers than to nonregular customers.

Table 6.17 Items of Customised Preferential Treatment Scale (Final Validation Study)

(d)Customer Citizenship Behaviour: Cooperation. This scale was measured using a four-item, seven-point Likert scale, adapted from Bettencourt (1997) and Rosenbaum and Massiah (2007).

The employees of service provider get my full cooperation.
I carefully observe the rules and policies of service provider
I go out of my way to treat service provider’s personnel with kindness and respect.
I do things that can make service provider’s employee’s job easier.

Table 6.18 Items of Cooperation Scale (Final Validation Study)

(e) Customer Citizenship Behaviour: Participation. To capture participation, a five-item scale adopted from Bettencourt (1997) and Rosenbaum and Massiah (2007) was used. All items were measured using seven-point Likert scale.

I let service provider knows of ways that can better serve my needs.
I make constructive suggestions to service provider on how to improve their service.
If I have a useful idea on how to improve service, I give it to someone at service provider
When I experience a problem at service provider, I let an employee know.
If I notice a problem at service provider, I inform an employee even if it does not affect me.

Table 6.19 Items of Participation Scale (Final Validation Study)

(f) Customer Citizenship Behaviour: Helping Other Customers. This scale was measured using three-items adapted from Groth (2005) and Bartikowski and Walsh (2011). All items were assessed on a seven-point scale, ranging from 1 (not at all likely) to 7 (extremely likely).

Based on your past experience with the service provider, how likely are you to ……….?
…………. help others when they do not know how to use this service
…………. teach someone how to use the service correctly.
………….explain to other customers how to use the service correctly.

Table 6.20 Items of Helping Other Customers Scale (Final Validation Study)

6.9.3.4 Form of Response to Each Question

Questions included in the questionnaire were primarily close-ended with the exception of two open-ended questions. The two open-ended questions included were (a) name of the brand/service provider, and (b) length of relationship with the service provider. Questions used for measuring the constructs were close-ended with predetermined response types, and the majority of the items adopted a 7-point rating scale including sematic differential scale and Likert type scale. Demographic characteristics were also asked in a close-ended question form. Section 6.9.3.3 provides a detailed discussion of the type of response format used for each construct.

6.9.3.5 Sequence and Physical Characteristics of Questions

The order of the questions and the layout of the questionnaire are crucial and can have significant influence on the results and the response rate, particularly in self-administered questionnaires (Hair et al., 2003). The sequence and physical characteristics of questions followed several guidelines provided by a number of researchers (Brace, 2006, 2013; Hair et al., 2003; Malhotra & Birks, 2006). The questionnaire started with general questions and then moved to more specific questions to reduce the potential for sequence bias. The questionnaire opened with an introduction about the purpose of the research, time needed to complete the questionnaire, an assurance of anonymity to enhance the response rate, and the contact details of the researcher and the supervisor. This was followed by the basic questions and then the standardised classification section. The final part of the questionnaire included the thank-you statement along with some information about the prize draw and a statement assuring the respondents that the emails provided for the prize draw will not be used for any other purpose. Guided by Brace (2013) and Stokburger-Sauer et al. (2012), the sequence of the basic questions (i.e. questions directly related to the research objectives) were deliberately designed according to the reverse direction of the hypotheses. Specifically, questions measuring the hypothesised consequences were presented first, then the items used to assess consumer-brand identification were included, and finally questions assessing the proposed antecedents were presented. The length of the questionnaire, which is an important issue to be considered, was addressed by using double-sided printing. This reduced the length of the questionnaire from 6 to 3 pages (exclusive of the cover page) which may enhance the respondents' perception of its length.

6.9.3.6. Pretest and Revise the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was pre-tested on six doctoral students in various fields in Hull University. During the pre-test, the respondents were encouraged to give comments on the questionnaire and raise any problems or concerns with respect to the questions, instructions, or the questionnaire layout. Any question that respondents had difficulty in understanding or perceived it as ambiguous and not clear was noted and reviewed. Some of the questions were rephrased while others remained without changes because they were part of scales developed and validated in previous studies. In addition, to make the instructions clearer and easier for potential respondents, it was suggested to write the service types in a list and provide examples of the well-known and familiar brands in each category. Two notable comments resulted in clearer layout of the questionnaire. First, to reduce the length of the questionnaire, it was suggested to combine similar sections rather than dividing the questionnaire into many sections. Second, it was proposed that sticking to one type of questions (i.e. circling the appropriate number that best reflects the respondents opinion) is easier to potential respondents rather than asking more than one type of questions (i.e. circling the appropriate number in some questions and writing the appropriate number into the boxes in other questions). In line with the respondents' suggestions and to maintain uniformity, all the questions were modified to ask respondents to circle the number that best reflects their opinion. In keeping with all the comments and suggestions given by respondents, the questionnaire was revised and modified. The pretested questionnaire (single-sided) is presented in Appendix C1.

6.9.4 Response Rate Enhancement Techniques

Low response rate is considered a major problem of mail surveys and can have significant implications on both the quantity and quality of the data obtained (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 1996). Following the recommendations of several researchers, a number of steps were thus taken to maximise the response rate. First, the cover letter accompanying the questionnaire was printed on a letterhead paper including the name of the university and its address and the accompanying free post return envelope was addressed to the research office of Hull University Business School. Larson and Poist (2004) and Greer et al. (2000) found that the university administration of the survey and the provision of a stamped return envelope have a positive effect on survey response rate. The cover letter also emphasised the importance of the respondents' answers to the research and assured anonymity and confidentiality throughout the data collection and data analysis process (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 1996; Jobber & Saunders 1993; Larson & Poist 2004; Roth & BeVier, 1998). Financial incentives in the form of prize draw (one of four £50 Amazon gift vouchers) were used given that previous studies found that monetary incentives are likely to increase the response rate (e.g. Jobber and O'Reilly, 1998; Jobber et al., 2004; Jobber & Saunders 1993; Roth & BeVier, 1998). On the other side, it was also reported that respondents are indifferent to monetary incentives (e.g. Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 1996; Larson & Poist, 2004). Given that the results found contradict with the respondents' actual behaviour, it was concluded that the respondents are reluctant to admit it because of social desirability reasons (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 1996; Larson & Poist, 2004). No specific deadline for questionnaire response was determined in the questionnaire due to previous unfavourable findings and the view that putting a due date is likely to discourage response (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 1996; Larson & Poist 2004). Pre notification and follow-up were not used for two main reasons. First, inconsistent findings have been found regarding the influence of both pre notification and follow-up on survey response. Whereas previous studies reported the positive impact of both techniques on response likelihood (e.g. Fox et al., 1988; Roth & BeVier, 1998;), others found that respondents are indifferent to pre notification and follow-up and may in fact lower the response rate (e.g. Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 1996; Greer et al., 2000; Jobber, 1986; Larson & Poist 2004). Second, pre notification and follow-up of 5000 consumers were considered beyond the practical and financial feasibility of the research.

6.9.5. Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures

Netemeyer et al. (2003: 8) stated that one study providing evidence of construct validity is “not enough to conclude that the measure has been validated”. The purpose of this study is to provide additional evidence of dimensionality, reliability, validity (primarily nomological validity) of the CBI scale using a new independent sample. All the analyses conducted in the first two studies were replicated to reconfirm the dimensionality of the scale and reassess its convergent and discriminant validity. Additionally, the relationships and the direct effects among hypothesised latent constructs, (i.e. nomological net) were tested using covariance-based structural equation modelling (SEM). Nomological validity assesses the extent to which constructs that are theoretically related are empirically related (Netemeyer et al., 2003). In other words, evidence of nomological validity is established when the construct under investigation has empirical relationships with distinct antecedents and consequences (Iacobucci et al., 1995). In the following subsections, missing data analysis and non-response bias are presented, given that handling missing data and non-response bias are considered in this study in contrast with the first two studies.

This is followed by an overview of structural equation modelling (SEM) and the rationale behind the selection of SEM as the analytical technique employed in this study.

6.9.5.1 Missing Data Analysis

Missing data refers to "information not available for a subject (or case) about whom other information is available. Missing data often occur when a respondent fails to answer one or more questions in a survey" (Hair et al., 2010: 34). Several reasons beyond the researcher's control can result in missing data, for example, some respondents may have insufficient information to answer the question, or refuse to answer some sensitive questions (e.g. income , age or education) (Field, 2005). Missing data may result in biased statistical findings (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 2010) and thus it needs to be addressed prior to data analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Missing data analysis addresses two important issues. First, it is to determine the extent or the amount of missing values for both individual variables and individuals cases (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 2010). Whereas Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that missing data under 5% is not regarded as a critical issue, Hair et al. (2010) proposed that missing data less than 10% can generally be ignored. Second, it is to examine the patterns of the missing data, which then determine the appropriate remedies to be employed. Generally, there are three main patterns of missing data: those missing completely at random (MCAR), those missing at random (MAR), and those missing not at random or nonignorable (MNAR) (Little & Rubin, 1987; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Little's MCAR test is often used to investigate the pattern of missing data, by analysing and comparing the pattern of missing data on all variables with the pattern expected for a random missing data process. If the p-value is greater than .05 (i.e. nonsignificant difference), the missing data can then be classified as MCAR. However, if the MCAR test shows that the p-value is less than .05 (i.e. statistically significant difference), MAR can be inferred (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Selecting the statistical method to handle the missing data is based primarily on the pattern (i.e. MCAR or MAR) and the percentage of missing data. These methods include case substitution, mean substitution, regression imputation, and expectation maximisation (EM). Any of the methods can be used when data is missing completely at random (MCAR) as long as the percentage of missing data is low. However, EM method is preferable compared to other methods (e.g. regression) as the missing data level increases (Hair et al., 2010). In general, EM method is considered the simplest and most reasonable approach to deal with data missing randomly (i.e. MCAR or MAR) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

6.9.5.2 Non-Response Bias

Non-response bias occurs when an entire questionnaire is missing or not obtained on a unit selected for the sample (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003: 80). Non-response bias is concerned with determining if respondents and non-respondents to the questionnaire differ substantially in terms of their responses (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). The main common reason for nonresponse is the respondent's refusal to answer the questionnaire or be a part of the research without specifying the reason(s) (Saunders et al., 2007). Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggested that the estimation of non-response bias is considered an important step that provides further confidence in the sample before being generalised to the population from which the sample is drawn.

However, Morgan and Hunt (1994) questioned the issue of sample generalisability due to non-response error and argued that non-response bias is not a major issue when the research is providing an initial test of a theoretical model. More specifically, Morgan and Hunt (1994: 28) stated that whether the sample is an appropriate context for testing the theory and whether the sample of respondents has variance to be explained are the main important issues in initial testing of theoretical model.

Non-response bias can be estimated using three main methods: comparison with known values for a population, subjective estimates and extrapolation methods (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). A commonly used method for testing non-response bias assumes that late respondents are similar to nonrespondents, and thus both early and late respondents are subject to an independent t-test to assess if both groups differ significantly (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). However, because of the distribution method adopted in this study it was difficult to objectively differentiate between early and late respondents, and as a consequent assessing non-response bias on the basis of early and late respondents was not suitable for this research. In this case, to estimate non-response bias given the low response rate, the completed sample was split randomly and both groups were assessed using an independent t-test.

6.9.5.3 Structural Equation Modelling

With the increasing complexity and specificity of research questions (Hoyle, 1995), structural equation modelling (SEM) has become increasingly a popular multivariate approach across different disciplines and social sciences in particular (e.g. Chin, 1998; Kelloway, 1995). SEM is viewed as one of the most flexible and rigorous approaches to research design and data analysis compared to exploratory factor analysis, discriminant analysis or multiple regression (Chin, 1998; Hoyle, 1995). SEM is a comprehensive statistical approach for testing a set of relationships between independent and dependents constructs (Ulman, 2007) and among observed variables and latent constructs (Hoyle, 1995). In other words, SEM is "a multivariate technique combining elements of factor analysis and multiple regressions ………. to simultaneously examine a series of interrelated dependence relationships among the measured variables and latent constructs as well as between several latent constructs" (Hair et al., 2010: 609). SEM is known by many names including causal modelling, causal analysis simultaneous equation modelling, covariance structure analysis, latent variable analysis, path analysis, or confirmatory factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Ulman, 2007). However, this naïve description of SEM as casual modelling or casual analysis resulted in misunderstanding regarding the extent to which SEM adequately tests casual assumptions (Hoyle, 1995). Whereas SEM is a powerful technique for testing multiple and interrelated dependence relationships among latent constructs, it "cannot be used to test the hypothesis of directionality" (Hoyle, 1995:10). That is, the directional arrows in the structural model are used to represent relations between latent constructs and should not be considered as indication of casual direction. Overall, all SEM models are differentiated by the following three main aspects: (a) estimation of multiple and interrelated dependence relationships, (b) an ability to represent unobserved concepts in these relationships and account for measurement error in the estimation process, (c) defining a model to explain the entire set of relationships (Hair et al., 21010: 609). The most popular SEM-based techniques are (1) covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) and (2) variance-based least squares (PLS) structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) (Hair et al., 2011)

PLS-SEM is a component-based estimation method that simultaneously assesses the measurement model (i.e. the relationships between the latent construct and its indicators) within the context of the structural model (i.e. the relationships among latent constructs) (Esposito Vinzi et al., 2010). While CB-SEM attempts to reproduce the theoretical covariance matrix based on a specified set of structural equations, PLS-SEM primarily goals is to maximise the explained variance of dependent latent constructs (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2011). Unlike CB-SEM, PLS-SEM demands less regarding the multivariate normality of data and the sample size. Especially for complex models, the sample size requirement for PLS-SEM is smaller than the minimum sample size required for CB-SEM (Chin & Dibbern, 2010). PLS is considered more appropriate if "CB-SEM assumptions cannot be met or the research objective is prediction rather than confirmation of structural relationships" (Hair et al., 2011: 139).

Overall, CB-SEM was deemed the most appropriate technique for this study for several reasons: Firstly, SEM allows for the estimation of both observed variables and latent constructs (Hair et al., 2010; Hoyle, 1995; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004), however, other former multivariate methods are based only on observed variables only (Byrne, 2010). It is beneficial to incorporate latent constructs into the analysis as the theoretical constructs will be better represented, the statistical estimation of the relationships between constructs can be improved, and the measurement error can be modelled explicitly (Hair et al., 2010). Secondly, SEM provides a means of testing theoretical complex models incorporating multiple interrelated dependence relationships (Hair et al., 2010). As stated by Ulman (2007: 679), "when the phenomena of interest are complex and multidimensional, SEM is the only analysis that allows complete and simultaneous tests of all the relationships". Third, SEM provides a means of controlling for measurement error (Hoyle, 1995; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Parameter estimates can be seriously biased by not accounting for measurement errors (Byrne, 2010) as no construct can be perfectly measured (Hair et al., 2010). Fourth, SEM adopts a confirmatory approach rather than an exploratory approach to data analysis (Byrne, 2010). That is, specifying relationships in both measurement and structural models a priori is required before estimating and testing the model (Hair et al., 2010). In contrast to other multivariate techniques, SEM offers no default model specification (Hoyle, 1995). That is, SEM is a confirmatory method driven by theory than by data (Hair et al., 2010). Given these highly desirable characteristics, SEM has become one of the most preferable methods for empirically testing complex theoretical models (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004)

The evaluation of covariance-based structural equation modelling has been recommended to follow a two-step modelling approach (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) that distinguishes between the measurement model and the structural model. A two-step approach involves assessing the measurement model and then proceeding with the structural model, only if the measurement model is sufficiently valid (Hair et al., 2010). A measurement model, also known as confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model, specifies the relationships between observed measures and their underlying latent constructs (Byrne, 2010). The importance of the measurement model first step is noted given that a valid structural model cannot be conducted with bad measures (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, the measurement model is considered the basis for the structural model which then becomes part of the full structural model (Hair et al., 2010) which depicts the relationships among the latent constructs (Byrne, 2010). In general, structural equation modelling entails an assessment of both the measurement model and the structural model. As a consequent, this study adopts the two-step modelling approach. The first stage which is related to the measurement model specification and assessment is detailed in Section 6.6.5.6 and the same procedures will be followed in this study. After the measurement model has been validated using confirmatory factor analysis, the structural model should then be tested which involves mainly specifying and assessing the structural model (Hair et al., 2010).

6.9.5.4 Structural Model Specification

This process involves specifying the set of relationships between constructs (Hair et al., 2010). Specification is "the exercise of formally stating a model" (Hoyle, 1995: 2). The hypothesised relationships in the conceptual model presented in Chapter Five are relied upon when specifying the structural model relationships. A fundamental issue to be considered when specifying the structural model is identification (Hair et al., 2010; Hoyle, 1995). Identification is concerned with whether the model has sufficient information so that a unique set of parameter estimates can be found (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

A structural model may be underidentified, just identified, or overidentified (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). When the indicator variables variance and covariance are just equal the number of parameters to be estimated, the model is said to be just-identified (Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Here, a just-identified model, also known as saturated model, has got zero degrees of freedom (Hair et al., 2010), and thus can never be rejected (Byrne, 2010). The model is considered to be underidentified if the number of data points is less than number of parameters to be estimated (Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). As such, the underidentified model has no sufficient information so that unique set of values of parameters estimates can be obtained (Byrne, 2010). An underidentified model can be estimated if additional parameters become constrained or fixed so that the model has positive degrees of freedom. An overidentified model is one in which the number of indicator variables variance and covariance exceeds the number of parameters to be estimated (Hair et al., 2010). As such, an overidentified model has positive degrees of freedom (Byrne, 2010); more than one way of estimating the parameters (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) that allow for rejection of the model and thus rendering it scientifically useful (Byrne, 2010). Hence, the objective when applying SEM is to specify a model that meets the criterion of overidentification (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010).

6.9.5.5 Structural Model Assessment

After the measurement model has been validated and the structural model has been specified, parameters can then be estimated and the structural model can be assessed and respecified if required. The structural model assessment involves fit indices assessment, parameter estimates, hypothesised structural paths, and model diagnostics. Assessment of the structural model fit follows roughly the same procedures outlined in CFA model fit (see Section 6.6.5.6.3). Like measurement models, structural model fit assessment alone is “insufficient to support a proposed structural theory” (Hair et al., 2010: 712), individual structural parameter estimates should also be examined.

Three main criteria should be taken into consideration when evaluating the structural parameters estimates (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004) (a) the statistical significance of the parameter estimates, (b) the direction of the parameter estimates, and (c) the feasibility of the parameter estimates. The statistical significance of the parameter estimate is determined by its standard error and critical value (i.e. t-value). Standard errors reflect the extent to which the parameter has been estimated accurately with small values reflecting precise estimations. However, excessively large or small standard errors are indicator of poor model fit (Byrne, 2010). The critical value, obtained by dividing the parameter estimate by its standard error, determines whether the parameter estimate is significantly different from zero (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Thus, if the critical value exceeds a specific value, the parameter estimate is said to be significantly different from zero as that specified level of significance. For instance, if the critical value exceeds 1.96 for a two-tailed test at 5% significance level, then the parameter is said to be statistically different from zero (Byrne, 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The second criterion is whether the sign (i.e. positive or negative) of the parameter is consistent with the hypothesised relationship in the theoretical model. The third criterion is whether the parameter estimates within the admissible range of values. For instance, correlation should not exceed 1.00 and variance should not have negative values (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004: 70). Estimates falling outside the expected range imply that the model is wrong or the input matrix does not have sufficient information (Byrne, 2010). The squared multiple correlation (R^2) indicating the amount of variance in an endogenous construct that is explained by the exogenous constructs also should be considered when examining the structural model (Hair et al., 2010). Larger R^2 for each endogenous variable is desirable and implies the strength of the hypothesised relationships.

6.9.5.6 Structural Model Respecification

The next step in the SEM process is to respecify (i.e. modify) the model and subsequently evaluate the newly modified model if model estimation resulted in unfavourable indicators of fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Model modification refers to “adjusting a specified and estimated model by either freeing parameters that formerly were fixed or fixing parameters that formerly were free” (Hoyle, 1995: 8). Overall, the main purpose of respecifying the structural model is to obtain a better data-to-model fit and yield parameters having substantive meaning (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Ulman, 2007). To modify the model, parameter estimates, standardised residuals and modification indices need to be considered (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). One aspect to be considered is the statistical significance of parameters estimated in the structural model. Fixing a parameter with a small critical value (t-value) and thus low explanatory power may improve the model fit and influence the estimates of the remaining parameters. However, restricting such non-significant parameters can take place only in line with the underlying theory (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Another method of respecifying the structural model is to examine the standardised residuals. A standardised residual greater than 2.58 implies the covariance between this pair of indicators is not well explained by the initial theory. One way to overcome this problem is to delete the most troublesome indicators (Hair et al., 2010). One more method to be considered to respecify the structural model is modification indices. The modification index value, which is provided only for every fixed parameter, reflects the decrease in the chi square value if this parameter was freely estimated (Byrne, 2010). Thus, allowing parameters having large values of modification indices to become free would result in lower chi square values and better model fit (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). As indicated the above, any modification s in the model must be theoretically justified.

6.10 Summary

This chapter outlined the methodological approach undertaken in this research. The first section of chapter discussed the research design employed, followed by an overview of the scale development process. The third section discussed how the first phase of the scale development process was conducted. This involved considering issues such as construct definition, item generation, item wording, and expert item judging. This was followed by a discussion of the second phase of the scale development process in which a detailed presentation of the sampling process, selected product categories and brands, questionnaire design process, and quantitative analysis procedures were given for the first two studies. The third phase of the scale development was then introduced. This involved a detailed discussion of the sampling process, research setting, questionnaire design process, and quantitative data analysis employed in the third study. Chapter Seven presents the analysis of the first and second phases of the scale development process.

CHAPTER SEVEN

PHASE 1 & 2: ITEM GENERATION AND SCALE DEVELOPMENT

7.1. Introduction

The previous chapters developed a theory-derived definition of CBI and proposed that the CBI construct is a multidimensional construct with three dimensions. These dimensions are cognitive identification, evaluative identification, and affective identification. Chapter Six then outlined the relevant research philosophy, the research design, and the research methodology. The primary focus of this chapter is to discuss the analysis of the first and the second phases in the scale development process. Owing to the sequential nature of the scale development process, this chapter provides a detailed explanation of the results in the following order. The first section begins with a discussion of the different techniques used to assess the content validity of items generated. The second section is concerned with the analysis conducted in the first study. Specifically, the discussion begins with the preliminary data analysis and the exploratory factor analysis performed. The next section shows in detail how the initial dimensionality of the CBI construct is established together with the results of both the convergent and the discriminant validity. The fourth section is related to the analysis employed in the second study. This section presents the exploratory factor analysis and the confirmatory factor analysis utilized in this study. Measurement variance analysis across product categories was also conducted. This chapter concludes with a list of items that are subject to further assessment of dimensionality, reliability and validity in Chapter Eight. Figure 7.1 shows the structure of the chapter.

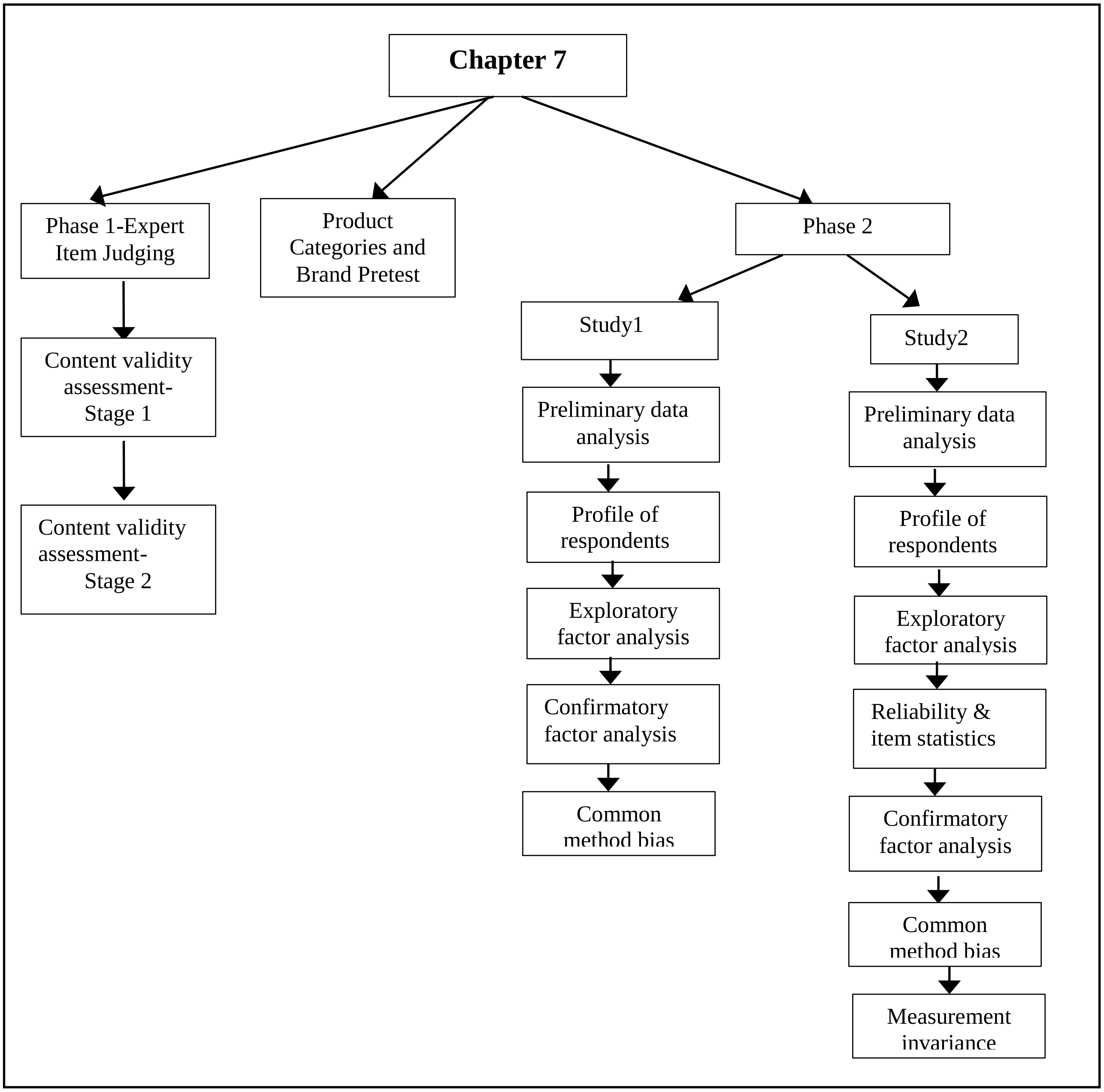


Figure 7.1 Structure of Chapter Seven

7.2. Phase One- Expert Item Judging

In this section, the two stages of expert item judging conducted to assess the content validity of the initial item pool are presented.

7.2.1. Content Validity Assessment - Stage 1

To assess the content validity of the initial item pool generated, an experience survey was distributed to a panel of six marketing academics in leading universities and six doctoral students in different universities (23 May 2012 to 7 June 2012). Each panel member was asked to assign each item to the most closely reflected dimension or to a not applicable category based on the definitions provided. The items were then calculated using the substantive validity analysis proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1991). Anderson and Gerbing (1991: 734) proposed two indices to assess the extent to which the items capture the full domain of the construct. The first index, the proportion of substantive agreement (P_{sa}), is defined "as the proportion of respondents who assign an item to its intended construct". P_{sa} is calculated by dividing the number of participants who assigned an item to its posited dimension by the total number of respondents as follows ($P_{sa} = n_c / N$) where n_c stands for the number of respondents assigning an item to its intended construct and N represents the total number of respondents. The values of P_{sa} range from 0.0 to 1.0, where higher values show greater substantive validity of the item. Although this index indicates the extent to which an item taps its posited construct, it is important to note that it does not determine the degree to which an item might be reflecting another constructs.

The substantive–validity coefficient (C_{sv}) reflects the degree to which respondents sort an item to its intended construct more than any other construct. Thus, the latter index shows a more accurate estimate for assessing the content validity. The substantive-validity coefficient (C_{sv}) is calculated as follows ($C_{sv} = (n_c - n_o) / N$) where n_c and N are defined as in the previous equation and n_o represents the highest number of assignments of the item to any other construct. The values of C_{sv} range from -1.0 to 1.0, where larger values determine greater substantive validity. A negative value implies that the item was assigned to another construct more than the construct determined by the researcher. In line with Anderson and Gerbing's suggestions, the two indices were computed for each item to identify the items that respondents had difficulty in assigning to its intended construct. Consistent with Anderson and Gerbing (1991), items with p_{sa} and C_{sv} values of .5 or greater were retained; items that did not meet the minimum the cut off value were dropped. Agreement between judges with respect to item assignment contributes to both indices. 23 items with $C_{sv} < .5$ were dropped (see Table 7.1). Low score of C_{sv} indicates that there is confusion regarding the dimension the item best describes. C_{sv} of zero for three cognitive items and one affective item revealed that these four items were assigned equally among two dimensions and not applicable category. The four items were classified as ambiguous items and were dropped. The negative C_{sv} of eight more items indicated that they were assigned to constructs other than the intended construct. Specifically, out of those eight items, six items were assigned to the affective identification dimension. In addition, C_{sv} of zero for two evaluative items implied that these two items were assigned equally among the evaluative and the affective dimensions of identification. It appeared that there exists some confusion distinguishing between some of cognitive, evaluative and affective items. After careful consideration, these ten items were rephrased and reworded to tap the intended construct correctly. Further, some of the items were reworded based on the panel members' suggestions. For example, the cognitive item "I consider Brand X to be me" was modified to "I consider Brand X to be like me". Table 7.2 shows the reworded items. Based on the first stage of content validity assessment, the number of items was reduced from 97 to 70 items.

Item	Psa	Csv	Decision
Brand X reflects who I am	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
I consider Brand X to be "me" (it reflects who I consider myself to be).	11/12=0.92	11/12=0.92	Retained
Brand X is an important reflection of who I am.	10/12 = 0.83	(10-1)= 0.75	Retained
Brand X is an important indication of who I am.	12/12=1.0	(12-0)/12=1.0	Retained
Brand X says a lot about the kind of person I am.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
I believe that brand X helps me define who I am.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
Brand X is part of who I am.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
I consider Brand X to be part of myself.	10/11=0.91	(10-1)/11=0.82	Retained
Part of me is defined by Brand X.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
Brand X is a big part of who I am.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
In general, Brand X is an important part of my self-image.	10/12 = 0.83	(10-2)/12= 0.67	Retained
Brand X is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am (R).	8/12=0.67	(8-2)/12=0.5	Retained
Brand X is central to my identity.	12/12=1.0	(12-0)/12=1.0	Retained
I derive some of my identity from Brand X.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
If brand X was not around any longer, I would feel like I had lost a little bit of myself	6/12=0.50	(6-5)/12=0.08	Dropped
Without Brand X, I would feel a little bit less like myself.	6/12=0.50	(6-5)/12=0.08	Dropped
Brand X is part of myself, without, I would feel something is missing.	8/12=0.67	(8-3)/12=0.42	Dropped
Since this brand shows who I am, I would feel empty without it.	7/12=0.58	(7-4)/12=0.25	Dropped
If I were describing myself, Brand X would likely be something I would mention.	10/12 = 0.83	(10-2)/12= 0.67	Retained
I often refer to the name of brand X when I introduce myself.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
Probably, people who know me might sometimes think of brand X when they think of me.	7/12=0.58	(7-5)/12=0.17	Dropped
Brand X says something to other people about who I am.	8/12=0.67	(8-4)/12=0.33	Dropped
I (can) use Brand X to communicate who I am to other people.	6/12=0.50	(6-5)/12=0.08	Dropped
I can identify with Brand X.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained

Item	Psa	Csv	Decision
I consider myself a typical user of brand X.	4/12=0.33	(4-4)/12=ZERO	Dropped
I don’t act like a typical user of brand X (R).	5/12=0.42	(5-4)/12=0.08	Dropped
If asked if I am a typical user of brand X, I would say “yes”.	5/12=0.42	(5-4)/12=0.08	Dropped
I represent a typical user of brand X.	7/12=0.58	(7-4)/12=0.25	Dropped
I define myself as a user of brand X.	7/12=0.58	(7-3)/12=0.33	Dropped
I often acknowledge the fact that I am typical user of brand X.	4/12=0.33	(4-4)/12=ZERO	Dropped
I think it is accurate if I was described as a typical user of brand X.	4/12=0.33	(4-4)/12=ZERO	Dropped
I feel a personal connection to Brand X.	4/12=0.33	(4-7)/12= -0.25	Rephrased
Brand X suits me well.	6/12=0.50	(6-5)/12=0.08	Dropped
Brand X reflects some aspects of my self-identity.	12/12=1.0	(12-0)/12=1.0	Retained
Overall, being associated with brand X has very little to do with who I am.	5/12=0.42	(5-6)/12= -0.08	Rephrased
Brand X and I have a lot in common.	9/12=0.75	(9-2)/12=0.58	Retained
Brand X shows who I am.	12/12=1.0	(12-0)/12=1.0	Retained
Brand X represents my self- identity.	12/12=1.0	(12-0)/12=1.0	Retained
If brand X is no longer around, I would feel like I lost an important part of my identity.	3/12= 0.25	(3-8)/12=-0.42	Rephrased
I am true brand X fan.	ZERO	(0-7)/12= -0.58	Rephrased
I believe brand X represents part of me.	12/12=1.0	(12-0)/12=1.0	Retained
My own sense of who I am (i.e., your personal identity) overlap with my sense of what brand represents (i.e., the [brand]‘s identity).	8/12=0.67	(8-3)/12=0.42	Dropped
Brand X symbolises what kind of person I am.	12/12=1.0	(12-0)/12=1.0	Retained
Brand X says a lot about my identity, it is more than just a purchase.	12/12=1.0	(12-0)/12=1.0	Retained
Brand X fits my self-concept.	10/10 = 1.00	(10-0 /10= 1.0	Retained
My association with brand X makes me feel good	5/12=0.42	(5-7)/12= -0.16	Rephrased
My association with brand X makes me happy.	4/12=0.33	(4-8)/12=-0.33	Rephrased
I am happy about my association with brand X.	6/12=0.50	(6-6)/12= zero	Rephrased
My association with brand X gives me pleasure	6/12=0.50	(6-6)/12= zero	Rephrased
Associating with brand X enhances my image.	7/12=0.58	(7-5)/12=0.17	Dropped
My association with brand X enhances the social role I play.	8/12=0.67	(8-3)/12=0.42	Dropped
My association with brand X has a positive impact on what others think of me.	8/12=0.67	(8-4)/12=0.33	Dropped
Associating with brand X makes a good impression on other people.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
Associating with brand X gives me social approval	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
My association with brand X improves the way others view me.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
My association with brand X improves the way I am perceived by others.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained

Item	Psa	Csv	Decision
I believe others respect me for my association with brand X.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
I believe others admire me for my association with brand X.	10/12=0.83	(10-1)/12=0.75	Retained
I am proud to tell others about my association with brand X.	9/12=0.75	(9-2)/12=0.58	Retained
I talk up my association with brand X to my friends as a great brand to identify with.	10/11=0.91	(10-1)/11=0.82	Retained
I would rather not to tell people about my association with brand X (R).	10/12=0.83	(10-1)/12=0.75	Retained
I am weary of telling people about my association with brand X because of the negative reaction I often receive.	10/12=0.83	(10-1)/12=0.75	Retained
My association with brand X is positively judged by others.	10/12 = 0.83	(10-2)/12= 0.67	Retained
Others view my association with brand X positively.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
No one I know likes my association with Brand X.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
I often regret my association with brand X.	7/12=0.58	(7-5)/12=0.17	Dropped
In general, I’m glad to be associated with Brand X.	8/12=0.67	(8-3)/12=0.42	Dropped
Overall, I often feel that my association with brand X is not worthwhile.	9/12=0.75	(9-2)/12=0.58	Retained
I am proud to talk up my association with brand X.	10/12 = 0.83	(10-2)/12= 0.67	Retained
My association with brand X is a source of pride in my life.	5/12=0.42	(5-4)/12=0.08	Dropped
Associating with brand X makes me feel special.	5/12=0.42	(5-7)/12=-0.17	Rephrased
In general, others respect individuals for their association with brand X.	10/12=0.83	(10-1)/12=0.75	Retained
I don't really have too many feelings about brand X (R).	11/12=0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
I have no feelings for brand X (R).	10/12 = 0.83	(10-1)/12= 0.75	Retained
If someone ridiculed brand X, I would feel irritated	9/11=0.82	(9-1)/11=0.73	Retained
When someone criticises brand X, it feels like a personal insult.	9/12=0.75	(9-2)/12=0.58	Retained
If a story in the media criticised brand X, I would feel embarrassed.	9/12=0.75	(9-2)/12=0.58	Retained
When something bad happens to brand X, I personally feel hurt	10/12 = 0.83	(10-2)/12= 0.67	Retained
If someone praised brand X, I would feel somewhat praised myself.	7/12=0.58	(7-3)/12=0.33	Dropped
When someone praises brand X, it feels like a personal compliment	8/12=0.67	(8-3)/12=0.42	Dropped
I am very attached to brand X.	9/12=0.75	(9-2)/12=0.58	Retained
I feel a strong attachment towards brand X.	7/12=0.58	(7-3)/12=0.33	Dropped
I do not feel emotionally attached to brand X (R).	10/12=0.83	(10-1)/12=0.75	Retained
I don’t feel a sense of being connected with brand X.	9/12=0.75	(9-1)/12=0.67	Retained
I feel emotionally connected to brand X.	10/12 = 0.83	(10-2)/12= 0.67	Retained
I feel strong ties to brand X.	8/12=0.67	(8-3)/12=0.42	Dropped
I would experience an emotional loss if I had to stop using brand X.	12/12=1.0	(12-0)/12=1.0	Retained
I would experience an emotional loss if brand X is no longer around.	12/12=1.0	(12-0)/12=1.0	Retained

Item	Psa	Csv	Decision
I feel a sense of ownership of brand X rather than just a user.	4/12=0.33	(4-4)/12=ZERO	Dropped
I have a strong sense of belonging to brand X.	9/12=0.75	(9-3)/12=0.50	Retained
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to brand X.	9/12=0.75	(9-1)/12=0.67	Retained
I have a special bond with brand X.	9/12=0.75	(9-2)/12=0.58	Retained
I find it difficult to form a bond with brand X.	11/12= 0.92	(11-1)/12=0.83	Retained
Brand X is very dear to me.	9/12=0.75	(9-2)/12=0.58	Retained
Brand X has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	3/12=0.25	(3-7)/12=(-0.33)	Rephrased
I have a strong sense of closeness to brand X.	9/12=0.75	(9-2)/12=0.58	Retained
A negative report in the media about brand X would make feel ashamed.	10/12 = 0.83	(10-2)/12= 0.67	Retained

Table 7.1 Content Validity Assessment (Stage1)

Dimension	Actual Item	Modified Item
Cognitive identification	I consider Brand X to be “me” (it reflects who I consider myself to be).	I consider Brand X to be like “me” (it reflects who I consider myself to be).
	I feel a personal connection to brand X	Brand X has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
	Overall, being associated with brand X has very little to do with who I am	Overall, brand X has very little to do with who I am
	If brand X is no longer around, I would feel like I lost an important part of my identity.	If brand X is no longer around, I would think like I lost an important part of my identity.
	I am true brand X fan	I am true brand X fan because it reflects an important part of who I am.
	I can identify with brand X	I identify with Brand X
Evaluative identification	My association with brand X makes me feel good.	I feel good about my association with brand X.
	My association with brand X makes me happy.	My association with brand X makes me happy.
	My association with brand X gives me pleasure	I am pleased to be associated with brand X.
	Associating with brand X makes me feel special	Associating with brand X makes me different than other people.
Affective Identification	Brand X has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	I feel a personal connection to brand X.

Table 7.2 Rephrased Items Based on Content Validity Assessment (Stage1)

7.2.2. Content Validity Assessment- Stage 2

The second stage of content validity assessment adopted the technique recommended by Zaichkowsky (1985). A panel of three marketing academics and three PhD students was provided a list of the remaining items from the first stage (13 November 2012 to 3 December 2012). The panel members were requested to indicate the extent to which each item represents the dimension's definition and domain (i.e. not representative, somewhat representative, and clearly representative). Given that there is limited direction in the literature regarding the rules used to retain the items (Hardesty & Bearden, 2004), the researcher applied three different rules recommended by previous scholars (see Section 6.5.4.2 for more details). Whereas the retention rule of Bearden et al. (1989) and Netemeyer et al. (1996) reduced the number of items by 42, the decision rule of Manning et al. (1995) reduced the number of items from 72 to 20. These two rules were considered severe at this early stage of scale development. On the other hand, the retention rule of Lichtenstein et al. (1990) and Zaichkowsky (1985) resulted in dropping 20 items, leaving 50 items. Table 7.3 illustrates the items dropped with respect to each decision rule. The remaining 50 items are then tested in three subsequent empirical studies to assess the reliability and validity of the scale. Table 7.4 summarises the number of items for each dimension prior and after the two stages of expert judging. Overall, the number of items was reduced from 97 to 50.

Dimensions	Bearden et al. (1989) & Netemeyer et al. (1996)	Lichtenstein et al. (1990) & Zaichkowsky (1985)	Manning et al. 1995
Cognitive identification	21	13	21
Evaluative identification	8	4	14
Affective identification	13	3	17
Total number of items to be dropped	**42**	**20**	**52**

Table 7.3 Total Number of Items Dropped Based on Different Retention Decision Rules (Stage 2)

Dimensions	Number of items prior to expert judge	Number of items after expert judge- stage 1	Number of items after expert judge- stage2
Cognitive identification	45	29	16
Evaluative identification	27	21	17
Affective identification	25	20	17
Total number of items	**97**	**70**	**50**

Table 7.4 Number of Items by Dimension Before and After Two Stages of Expert Judging

7.3. Product Categories and Brand Pretest

Before starting the second phase of the scale development process, it was necessary to conduct a pretest among a sample of respondents representative of the expected respondents in the first and second studies. The main aim of this pretest was to select the most familiar and well-known product categories and brands to respondents. A total of seventy respondents participated in this pretest with an equal percentage of male and female (21 December 2012 to 31 December 2012). This group of respondents were relatively young with 50% aged between 18-25 years. The biggest segment of respondents had an annual income of $20,000 or less (50%), followed by a relatively smaller segment of respondents whose annual income ranged from $20,001-$40,000 (31.4%). With respect to the education level, high school graduates (44.3%) and undergraduates (48.6%) were the majority. Table 7.5 presents an overview of the sample characteristics.

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender		
Male	35	50
Female	35	50
Age Category		
18-25	35	50
26-35	10	14.3
36-45	12	17.1
46-55	8	11.4
56-65	5	7.1
66 or more	Zero	Zero
Annual Income		
$20,000 or less	35	50
$20,001 – $40,000	22	31.4
$40,001 - $60,000	5	7.1
$60,001 - $80,000	2	2.9
$80,001 - $100,000	5	7.1
More than $100,000	1	1.4
Educational Level		
Less than a high school graduate	Zero	Zero
High school graduate	31	44.3
Undergraduate	34	48.6
Postgraduate	5	7.1

Table 7.5 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents of Product Categories and Brand Pretest

The respondents were asked to indicate their level of familiarity with ten product categories on a 5-point Likert scale (1= not at all familiar and 5= extremely familiar). The range between minimum and maximum is 1 to 7 for all product categories (see Table 7.6). Laptops scored a mean rating of 3.57 on the familiarity scale, followed by mobile phones (3.44), cars (3.31), athletic shoes (3.07), jeans (3.04), and beers (3.01). However, tablet pcs (2.76), backpacks (2.60), fragrances (2.44), and watches (2.30) scored a mean rating below 3.0 on the familiarity score. Although the results showed that respondents are highly familiar with mobile phones, it was not included because the characteristics of mobile phones are similar to laptops and thus it deemed more appropriate to include only laptops. Along the same lines, athletic shoes and jeans are quite similar and thus jeans were excluded. Based on the results, the scale development study (1st sample) was applied on laptops and cars and the initial validation study (2nd sample) was applied on athletic shoes and beers.

Product Category	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	S.D.	Rank
Athletic Shoes	1	5	3.07	1.081	**4**
Mobile Phones	1	5	3.44	1.016	**2**
Cars	1	5	3.31	1.015	**3**
Beers	1	5	3.01	1.388	**6**
Jeans	1	5	3.04	0.955	**5**
Watches	1	5	2.30	1.040	**10**
Backpacks	1	5	2.60	1.345	**8**
Fragrances	1	5	2.44	1.258	**9**
Tablet PCs	1	5	2.76	1.042	**7**
Laptops	1	5	3.57	0.957	**1**

Table 7.6 Familiarity of Product Categories

Subjects were also asked to choose four product categories they are most familiar with and name one symbolic brand and one functional brand for each product category. The most frequently mentioned brands were chosen as the most familiar brands to respondents. Table 7.7 to Table 7.10 report the most frequent brands in product categories selected. The final symbolic and functional brands selected in each product category are presented in Table 7.11.

Laptops			
Symbolic Brands	**Frequency [a]**	**Utilitarian Brands**	**Frequency**
Apple	27	Dell	15
Dell(Alien ware)	13	HP	9
HP	4	Acer	6
Toshiba	1	Apple	5
		Lenovo	5
		Sony	2
		Asus	2
		Toshiba	1

[a] 45 respondents chose laptops as one of the four product categories they are most familiar with

Table 7.7 Frequency of Brands of Laptops

Cars			
Symbolic Brands	**Frequency [a]**	**Utilitarian Brands**	**Frequency**
BMW	13	Honda	13
Mercedes	8	Ford	10
Ford (Mustang)	3	Toyota	11
Toyota (Lexus)	3	Chevrolet	4
Porsche	3	Hyundai	2
Audi	2	Jeep	1
Lamborghini	2	Nissan	1
Ferrari	2	Subaru	1
Chevrolet	1	Suzuki	1
GMC	1	Mazda	1
Saturn	1		
Aston Martin	1		
Hyundai	1		
Volkswagen	1		
Dodge	1		
Jaguar	1		
Cadillac	1		

[a] 45 respondents chose cars as one of the four product categories they are most familiar with

Table 7.8 Frequency of Brands of Cars

Athletic Shoes			
Symbolic Brands	**Frequency [a]**	**Utilitarian Brands**	**Frequency**
Nike	26	Sketchers	9
Reebok	2	Reebok	5
Puma	1	Adidas	5
Converse	1	New Balance	3
New Balance	1	Asics	1
Vans	1	Vans	1
		Saucony	1
		K-Swiss	1
		Russell	1
		Under Armour	1
		Brooks	1
		Keds	1
		Rockport	1
		Champion	1

[a] 32 respondents chose athletic shoes as one of the four product categories they are most familiar with

Table 7.9 Frequency of Brands of Athletic Shoes

Beer			
Symbolic Brands	**Frequency** [a]	**Utilitarian Brands**	**Frequency**
Guinness	4	Budweiser	6
Samuel Adams	3	Bud light	3
Budweiser	2	Samuel Adams	2
Corona	1	Miller	2
Blue Moon	1	Coors	2
Stone Brewer	1	Michelob Lime	1
Heineken	1	Stone Brewer	1
Coors	1	Pabst Blue R	1
Miller	1	Busch	1
Sierra Nevada	1	Colt 45	1
Stella Artois	1	Dos Equis	1
Pabst Blue R	1	Natural Light	1
Bud light	1		
Michelob Lime	1		
Dos Equis	1		
Shock Top	1		

[a] 25 respondents chose beer as one of the four product categories they are most familiar with

Table 7.10 Frequency of Brands of Beer

Product Category	**Symbolic brand**	**Functional brand**	
Laptops	Apple	Dell	Scale Development Study
Cars	BMW	Honda	
Athletic Shoes	Nike	Sketchers	Initial Validation Study
Beer	Guinness	Budweiser	

Table 7.11 Product Categories and Brands Selected for each Study

7.4. Phase 2 – Scale Development Study (1st Sample)

7.4.1. Preliminary Data Analysis

7.4.1.1. Data Cleaning

In the first round of data collection, 369 respondents completed the questionnaire in February 2013 (21 February 2013 to 13 March 2013). The data obtained was first prepared and examined. All responses were revised to ensure that they are all recorded correctly. Negatively worded items in the questionnaire were recoded so that the values correspond to the remaining items in the questionnaire. Given that the questionnaires obtained did not include any missing responses, treatment of missing values was not conducted in this study. One statement was placed within the measures in the questionnaire as data quality check (see Appendix B3 for the location of this quality check question): "To ensure that participants are reading the questions, please select strongly disagree" with a Likert response format of 1= Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree. The respondents who selected any other answer were removed from the data set. Additional respondents were removed from the data set based on obvious response patterns identified in the visual inspection of the actual questionnaires. Specifically, respondents who provided inconsistent answers to positive and negative items were removed from the data set. The sample size after initial data cleaning was 316 and the number of surveys was 632 where each respondent was asked to answer the questions in relation to two different brands. These 316 responses were put forward for further data screening procedures.

7.4.1.2. Test of Outliers

As outlined in Section 6.7.5.3, Z-scores and boxplots were used to detect potential outliers. The results showed that the majority of the cases were below ± 3.29 z-values ($p<0.001$), which is an acceptable range for large samples (Hair et al., 2010). More precisely, the results identified four cases with 3.20 z-scores for item “If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed”. These four cases were noted to see whether they appear in identifying outliers using boxplots. Using boxplots, a number of outliers were detected (see Table 7.12). Outliers related to items “I am glad to be associated with this brand”, “This brand is central to my identity”, “A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed”, “If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed”, were not considered unique because it normal to find respondents who extremely agree or disagree with these items. In line with Hair et al. (2010) recommendations, no observations were deleted as they did not appear to be unrepresentative of the population.

Item	Case Number
I am glad to be associated with this brand	520, 568,581,595, 603, 605, 607, 620, 623, 628, 629
This brand is central to my identity	355, 370, 508, 512
A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed	232, 248, 279, 370
If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed	52,162, 412, 573

Table 7.12 Assessment of Outliers Using Boxplots (Scale Development Study)

7.4.1.3. Test of Normality

In line with Stevens (1992) recommendations, the normality assumptions were assessed using the values of kurtosis and skewness. The results showed that the negative values of skewness ranged from -.002 to - .966 and positive values ranged from .038 to 1.77. With respect to kurtosis, it was found that the negative values ranged from -.025 to -.2.00 and positive values ranged from 0.139 to 0.948. Although there is no specific values at which data deviates from normality, it was found that significant problems arise with "univariate skewness of 2.0 and Kurtoses of 7.0" (Curran et al., 1996: 26). Thus, values of both skewness and kurtosis reveal that the distribution of data more or less normally distributed. In addition, the normality assumption was inspected via Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) tests. As Table 7.13 shows, all items for both tests of normality were significant (p=0.000). Although the results showed a deviation from normality using Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) tests, several points should be noted. Nunnally (1978: 160) stated that "test scores (for trait scales) are seldom normally distributed, even if the number of items is large. Because of the positive correlation among items, a normal distribution would not be obtained". Cudeck (2001: 80) pointed that "variables rarely are normally distributed" and that "virtually no variable follows the normal distribution". Along the same lines, Malthouse (2001) stated that seven-point scales rarely follow a normal distribution. Furthermore, significant results in large samples can be easily obtained when small deviations from normality exist (Field, 2005). Field (2005) extended that for large samples (200 or more), visual inspection of the data distribution shape and value of skewness and kurtosis rather than significance tests are preferable indicators of normality. Finally, exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis appear to be relatively robust against violations of normality (Gorsuch, 1983).

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
Items	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig**	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig**
COG1	.202	631	.000	.900	631	.000
COG2	.157	631	.000	.931	631	.000
COG3	.199	631	.000	.901	631	.000
EVAL1	.195	631	.000	.922	631	.000
EVAL2	.147	631	.000	.927	631	.000
EVAL3	.209	631	.000	.889	631	.000
EVAL4	.222	631	.000	.915	631	.000
EMOT1	.152	631	.000	.934	631	.000
EMOT2	.212	631	.000	.890	631	.000
EMOT3	.232	631	.000	.835	631	.000
EMOT4	.222	631	.000	.874	631	.000
COG4	.247	631	.000	.838	631	.000
EVAL5	.188	631	.000	.918	631	.000
EVAL6	.246	631	.000	.905	631	.000
EMOT5	.206	631	.000	.876	631	.000
COG5	.225	631	.000	.842	631	.000
COG6	.171	631	.000	.910	631	.000
COG7	.210	631	.000	.891	631	.000
EMOT6	.195	631	.000	.903	631	.000
EMOT7	.229	631	.000	.849	631	.000
COG8	.247	631	.000	.840	631	.000
EVAL7	.166	631	.000	.913	631	.000
EVAL8	.159	631	.000	.915	631	.000
COG9	.263	631	.000	.792	631	.000
COG10	.209	631	.000	.882	631	.000
EMOT8	.137	631	.000	.928	631	.000
EMOT9	.256	631	.000	.832	631	.000
EVAL9	.180	631	.000	.906	631	.000
COG11	.231	631	.000	.868	631	.000
COG12	.217	631	.000	.877	631	.000
EVAL10	.169	631	.000	.913	631	.000
EMOT10	.218	631	.000	.877	631	.000

COG13	.205	631	.000	.887	631	.000
EMOT11	.233	631	.000	.864	631	.000
EVAL11	.166	631	.000	.932	631	.000
EMOT12	.251	631	.000	.818	631	.000
EVAL12	.184	631	.000	.923	631	.000
EVAL13	.240	631	.000	.834	631	.000
EMOT13	.189	631	.000	.897	631	.000
COG14	.222	631	.000	.846	631	.000
EVAL14	.183	631	.000	.899	631	.000
EMOT14	.237	631	.000	.865	631	.000
EMOT15	.220	631	.000	.871	631	.000
COG15	.175	631	.000	.902	631	.000
EVAL15	.215	631	.000	.910	631	.000
EMOT16	.236	631	.000	.861	631	.000
COG16	.217	631	.000	.867	631	.000
EVAL16	.171	631	.000	.920	631	.000
EMOT17	.231	631	.000	.867	631	.000
EVAL17	.208	631	.000	.883	631	.000

Table 7.13 Assessment of Normality Using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk (Scale Development Study)

7.4.2. Demographic Profile of Respondents

This section reports the demographic profile of respondents focusing primarily on their gender, age, annual income and education level. 632 usable questionnaires remained after data cleaning. Number of surveys obtained for each brand is presented in Table 7.14.

	Total	**Laptops**		**Cars**	
		Apple	**Dell**	**BMW**	**Honda**
Number of questionnaires	632	141	175	155	161

Table 7.14 Number of Surveys Classified by Brands (Scale Development Study)

Data showed that functional brands (i.e. Dell and Honda) had relatively more male respondents (54.3%, 52.2% respectively) than symbolic brands (Apple, BMW) did (46.8%, 49.7% respectively). The biggest segment of respondents in Apple, Dell, BMW, and Honda are relatively young with 36.2%, 37.7%, 41.3%, 32.9%, respectively, aged between 26-35, followed by a relatively smaller segment of respondents whose age between 18-25 (34.8%, 21.7%, 27.1%, 28% respectively). With respect to the income levels for respondents who selected Apple, Dell, BMW, Honda, 35.5%, 29.7%, 30.3%, 34.2% respectively, had an annual income of $20.001or less; 23.4%, 21.7%, 23.9%, 21.2% respectively, earned between $20,001- $40,000; and 22.7%, 25.7%, 25.2%, 23.6% respectively, had an annual income of $ 40,001- 60,000. With respect to the education level, high school graduates (33.3%, 34.3%, 36.8%, and 31.1%) and undergraduates (56.7%, 49.1%, 50.3%, and 54.7%) were the majority for Apple, Dell, BMW, and Honda brands respectively. In summary, the general demographic profile of all respondents was young, middle-classed annual income, and well educated. The demographic profile of respondents classified by brands is presented in Table 7.15.

	Total Sample		**Laptops**				**Cars**			
			Apple (141 responses)		**Dell** (175 responses)		**BMW** (155 responses)		**Honda** (161 responses)	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Gender										
Male	322	50.9	66	46.8	95	54.3	77	49.7	84	52.2
Female	310	49.1	75	53.2	80	45.7	78	50.3	77	47.8
Age Category										
18-25	174	27.5	49	34.8	38	21.7	42	27.1	45	28
26-35	234	37	51	36.2	66	37.7	64	41.3	53	32.9
36-45	120	19	24	17	36	20.6	28	18.1	32	19.9
46-55	64	10.1	8	5.7	24	13.7	10	6.5	22	13.7
56-65	34	5.4	6	4.3	11	6.3	8	5.2	9	5.6
65 or more	6	0.9	3	2.1	zero	zero	3	1.9	zero	zero
Annual income										
$20,000 or less	204	32.3	50	35.5	52	29.7	47	30.3	55	34.2

$20,001-$40,000	142	22.5	33	23.4	38	21.7	37	23.9	34	21.1
$40,001-$60,000	154	24.4	32	22.7	45	25.7	39	25.2	38	23.6
$60,001-$80,000	62	9.8	12	8.5	19	10.9	14	9	17	10.6
$80,001-$100,000	46	7.3	11	7.8	12	6.9	12	7.7	11	6.8
More than $100,00	24	3.8	3	2.1	9	5.1	6	3.9	6	3.7
Level of education										
Less than a high school graduate	14	2.2	2	1.4	5	2.9	4	2.6	3	1.9
High school graduate	214	33.9	47	33.3	60	34.3	57	36.8	50	31.1
Undergraduate degree	332	52.5	80	56.7	86	49.1	78	50.3	89	54.7
Postgraduate degree	72	11.4	12	8.5	24	13.7	16	10.3	20	12.4

Table 7.15 Sample Characteristics Classified by Brands (Scale Development Study)

7.4.3. Exploratory Factor Analysis

The next step in the scale development aimed to purify the CBI scale and to identify the underlying latent factors using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Before EFA could be employed, a number of issues were considered. First, with an overall number of responses of 632 and 50 items the data set was considered satisfactory to conduct EFA (see Section 6.7.1.3 for more details about the sample size required). Second, the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant which implies the presence of significant correlations among a number of variables (Hair et al., 2010). Specifically, Bartlett's test of sphericity provided an approximate significant chi square value of 34906.617 (p <.000, df= 1225). Finally, the measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) which examines the extent of intercorrelations among variables and the suitability of EFA was calculated. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) for the overall data set was .985 which is considered as meritorious (Hair et al., 2010). Consequently, both the Bartlett test of sphericity and KMO indicated the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis.

Once the fundamental requirements for factor analysis had been satisfied, the following step involved selecting the factor extraction method to be utilised. As previously stated, it has been acknowledged that both methods give almost identical results particularly when the number of items exceeds 30 or communalities obtained exceed .60 for most items (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). It is recommended at this exploratory stage to consider alternative solutions to arrive at the best representation of the data (Hair et al., 2010). Consequently, this study employed the two most common methods for factor extraction, namely, principal component analysis and principal axis factoring (Field, 2005; Floyd & Widaman, 1995; Hair et al., 2010) to get the best and the clearest solution. Further, it was assumed a priori that the underlying factors were related to each other. Therefore, an oblique rotation (promax) was selected (Section 6.7.5.5. provides the rationale of using oblique rotation).

Principal component analysis with promax rotation was performed on the initial 50 items. There were no restrictions placed on the number of factors to be extracted. The resulting eigenvalues, scree test plot, and explained variance were employed as decision criteria to determine the number of factors to extract. The initial EFA on all fifty items disclosed a muddled four-factor structure. A factor loading of .50 as the minimum cut-off was employed. Any item exhibiting cross loading over .30 was also dropped. Items with communalities less than .5 were also eliminated (Hair et al., 2010). Consequently, an iterative process ensued whereby items were removed one at a time. The process resulted in 27 items being dropped. Specifically, one item failed to meet the recommended cut-off for communalities, seventeen items failed to load significantly (.50) on one of the factors, and nine items loaded on more than one factor (> 0.3). This process resulted in 27 iterations being run on the data and ended with a clean four-factor structure (Table 7.16), which accounted for 77% of the total variance, with no loadings less than .50, no cross loadings >.3, and all communalities >.5. Twelve items from both cognitive identification and affective identification loaded on factor1. Evaluative identification items loaded on two factors. Factor 2 contained six items that address consumers' perceptions of other's evaluations of their association with a particular brand. Factor 3 contained three items that focus on how consumers value their association with the brand. Factor 4 contained two affective identification items that focus on consumers' reactions to others criticism of the brand they identify with. Cronbach Alpha for the four factors was .971, .917, .897, and .871 respectively, reflecting high level of internal consistency within each dimension and satisfying the threshold of .70 as recommended by Nunnally (1978). It is worth noting that high alpha of factors 1 and 2 may be a function of item redundancy and scale length (Netemeyer et al., 2003).

The initial 50 items were also subjected to a series of EFA in the same iterative process that was used previously. However, principal axis factoring was employed as the extraction method and oblique rotation (promax) as the rotation method. Again, eigenvalues, scree test plot, and explained variance were used as decision criteria to determine the number of factors to retain. The initial EFA revealed an untidy four-factor structure. As before, the criteria for removing items were: (a) items that failed to load significantly on a factor (<.50), (b) items that loaded on more than one factor (cross loading >.30), and (c) items that failed to meet the recommended threshold for communalities (<.50). This process resulted in dropping 22 items. Specifically, five items with communalities less than .50 were dropped. Eight items that failed to load significantly on a factor (<.50) and nine items that loaded on multiple factors were eliminated. The iterative process ended with a clean three-factor solution (see Table 7.17) accounting for 74% of the total variance, with no loadings <.5, no cross loadings >.3 and all communalities >.5. All the items loaded on the same factors as they did using Principal component analysis. However, each factor retained a few additional items with exception of factor 2. Specifically, factor 1 contained eighteen items, factor 2 included five items, and factor 3 contained five items.

Both principal component analysis (PCA) and principal axis factoring were conducted as an initial analysis of data reduction and determination of dimensionality of the CBI construct. Contrary to the theoretical foundations, a four-factor solution was identified from the principal component analysis while a three-factor solution was identified from the principal axis factoring. In both solutions, the cognitive and affective items loaded on a single factor rather than on two factors as expected. Moreover, the evaluation identification items loaded on two different factors rather than the expected one factor. In light of these unexpected results, the dimensionality of CBI was further examined using confirmatory factory analysis. Since the initial phase demonstrated the content validity of the items generated, it was decided to leave all the items (32 items) retained from both extraction methods at this stage and to further examine alternative factor solutions through model fit indices, reliability and validity.

	Factor Loadings				
	1	2	3	4	Communalities
COG9 This brand is central to my identity.	0.950				0.786
COG14 This brand represents my self- identity.	0.948				0.826
COG4 I consider this brand to be like a part of me.	0.941				0.799
COG8 I believe this brand helps me define who I am.	0.906				0.818
COG16 This brand reflects who I am.	0.860				0.794
COG11 This brand shows who I am.	0.836				0.806
REMOT16 Reverse of EMOT16	0.825				0.542
COG5 In general, this brand is an important part of my self-image.	0.823				0.768
EMOT14 I have a special bond with this brand.	0.805				0.815
EMOT11 I feel emotionally connected to this brand.	0.777				0.809
COG10 I am a true fan of this brand because it reflects an important part of who I am.	0.736				0.786
EMOT4 I have a strong sense of belonging to this brand.	0.728				0.822
EVAL11 Associating with this brand makes a good impression on other people.		0.913			0.737
EVAL16 In general, others respect individuals for their association with this brand.		0.847			0.570
EVAL10 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.		0.828			0.785
EVAL9 My association with this brand improves the way others view me.		0.786			0.791
EVAL2 Associating with this brand gives me social approval.		0.753			0.667
EVAL7 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.		0.737			0.770
EVAL1 I feel good about my association with this brand.			0.944		0.846
EVAL4 I am glad to be associated with this brand.			0.824		0.837
EVAL5 I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand.			0.708		0.803
EMOT12 If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.				0.973	0.889
EMOT9 A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.				0.882	0.872
Percentage of Variance	61.9%	7.7%	4.6%	3.7%	
Cronbach Alpha	0.971	0.917	0.897	0.871	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation

Table 7.16 Principal Component Analysis: Factor Loadings, Variance Extracted and Cronbach's Alpha (Scale Development Study)

	Factor Loadings			
	1	2	3	Communalities
COG14 This brand represents my self- identity.	0.969			0.793
COG9 This brand is central to my identity.	0.931			0.715
COG4 I consider this brand to be like a part of me.	0.886			0.771
COG5 In general, this brand is an important part of my self-image.	0.827			0.751
EMOT11 I feel emotionally connected to this brand.	0.812			0.817
COG8 I believe this brand helps me define who I am.	0.811			0.786
EMOT7 I would experience an emotional loss if this brand is no longer around.	0.805			0.701
EMOT14 I have a special bond with this brand.	0.801			0.822
EMOT4 I have a strong sense of belonging to this brand.	0.771			0.814
EMOT3 I would experience an emotional loss if I had to stop using this brand.	0.760			0.635
COG16 This brand reflects who I am.	0.758			0.777
EMOT17 BMW Cars-I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.	0.724			0.823
COG11 This brand shows who I am.	0.723			0.788
REMOT16 Reverse of EMOT16	0.708			0.507
COG1 This brand has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.699			0.685
EMOT15 I feel a personal connection to this brand.	0.694			0.812
COG10 I am a true fan of this brand because it reflects an important part of who I am.	0.682			0.761
COG13 This brand reflects some aspects of my identity	0.617			0.668
EVAL10 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.		0.864		0.775
EVAL7 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.		0.844		0.798
EVAL9 My association with this brand improves the way others view me.		0.805		0.752
EVAL11 Associating with this brand makes a good impression on other people.		0.735		0.582
EVAL14 I believe others admire me for my association with this brand.		0.713		0.783
EVAL1 I feel good about my association with this brand.			0.876	0.703
EVAL4 I am glad to be associated with this brand.			0.802	0.737
EVAL5 I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand.			0.685	0.732
EVAL12 My association with this brand makes me happy.			0.677	0.738
EVAL8 My association with this brand gives me pleasure.			0.583	0.699
Percentage of Variance	65.7%	4.9%	3.4%	
Cronbach Alpha	0.979	0.933	0.927	

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Analysis. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation

Table 7.17 Principal Axis Factoring: Factor Loadings, Variance Extracted and Cronbach's Alpha (Scale Development Study)

7.4.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS 19.0 was employed for three main objectives. First, to determine the dimensionality structure of CBI through the assessment of alternative measurement models fit. Given that multiple models may fit the same dataset, it is recommended to compare multiple plausible models (e.g. Brakus et al., 2009; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Second, to further refine the scale and remove poorly performing items though the use of parameter estimates, standardised residuals, and modification indices. Finally, to assess the best-fitted model with regard to convergent and discriminant validity. Maximum Likelihood estimation (MLE) technique was employed in this research. It is noted that MLE is the most widely used estimation technique (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003) as it is relatively robust against departures from normality (Hu &Bentler, 1998).

7.4.4.1. The Dimensional Structure of the Measurement Model

As indicated previously, EFA did not produce distinct factors among cognitive and affective items, only one factor was consistently found. Based on the results of EFA and the theoretical foundations, the dimensionality of CBI was tested through a number of alternative models (Figures 7.2 to 7.6): (1) the five-factor model (cognitive, affective, public evaluation, private evaluation, and emotional responses factors), (2) the four-factor model (cognitive/ affective, public evaluation, private evaluation, emotional responses factors), (3) the three factor model (cognitive/ affective, public evaluation, private evaluation), (4) another three factor model (predetermined primarily from the theoretical foundation of CBI) where it comprises cognitive, affective and evaluative identification factors, (5) the one-factor model which tests the possibility that all items load on a single factor. For each model, except for the one factor model, all factors within the measurement model were allowed to covary. To determine which measurement model fits the data best, the alternative measurement models were estimated using AMOS 19.0.

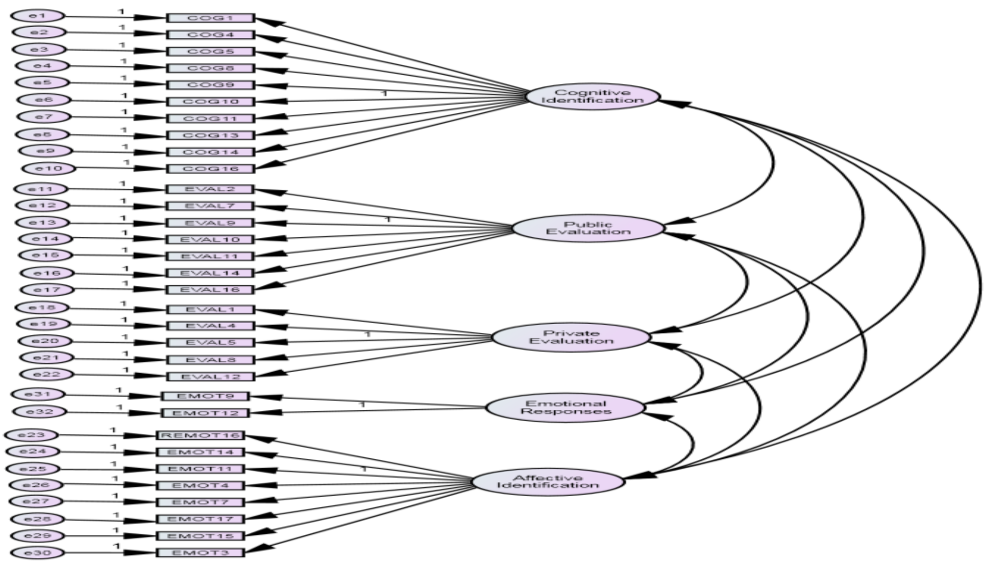


Figure 7.2 Consumer-Brand Identification Five-Factor Model (Scale Development Study)

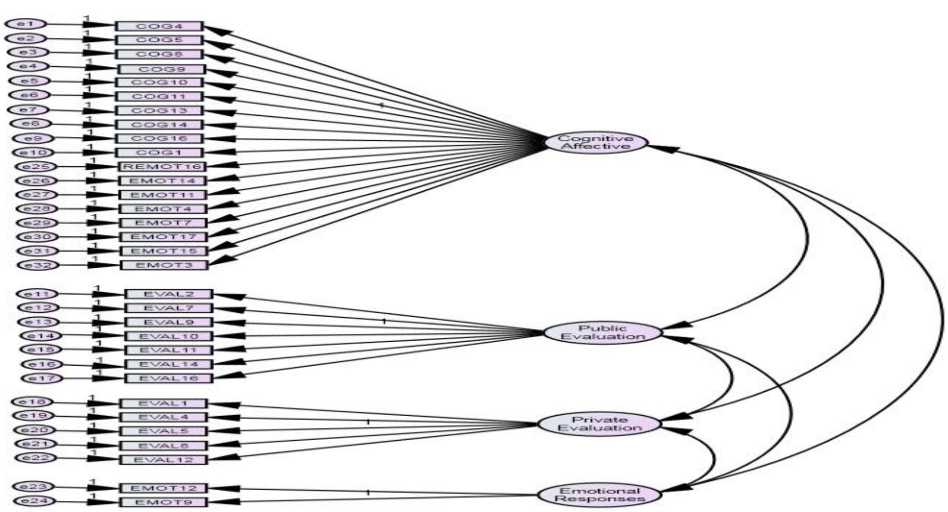


Figure 7.3 Consumer-Brand Identification Four-Factor Model (Scale Development Study)

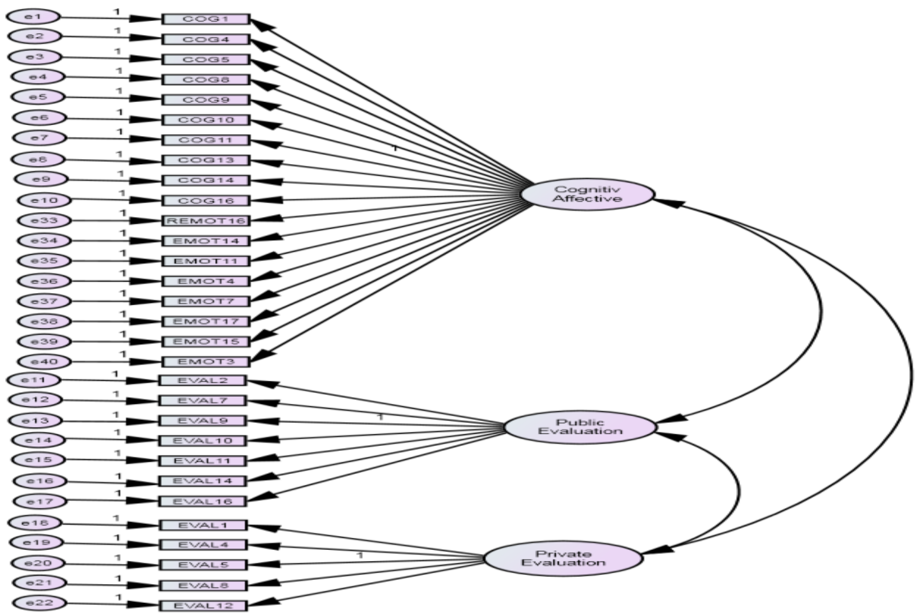


Figure 7.4 Consumer-Brand Identification Three-Factor Model (Scale Development Study)

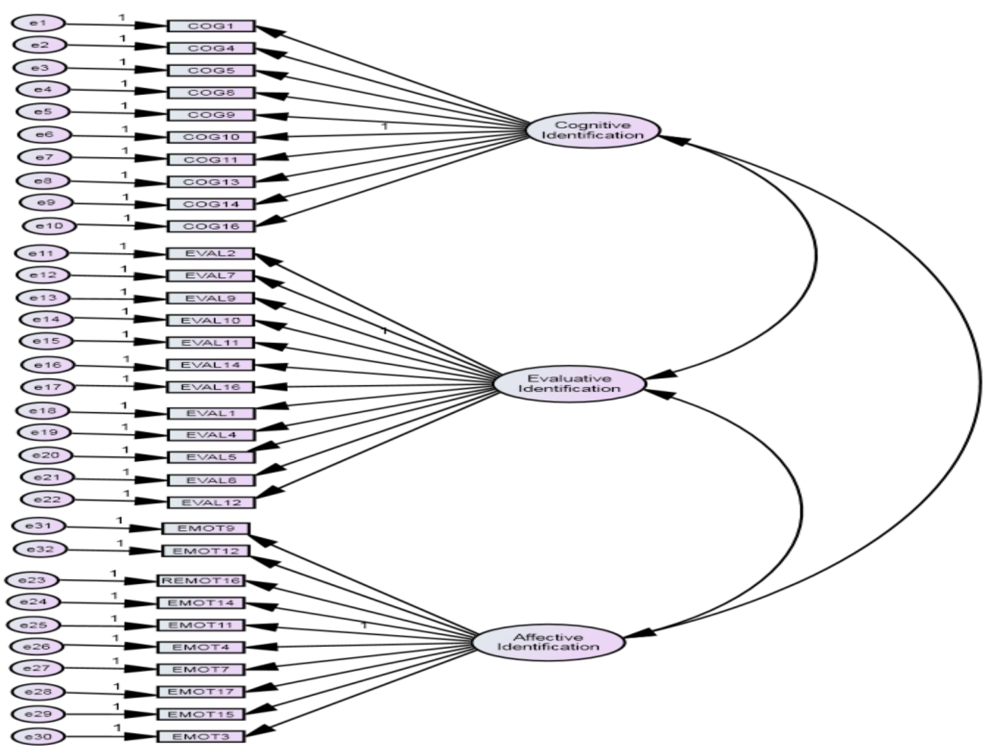


Figure 7.5 Consumer-Brand Identification Three-Factor Model based on SIT (Scale Development Study)

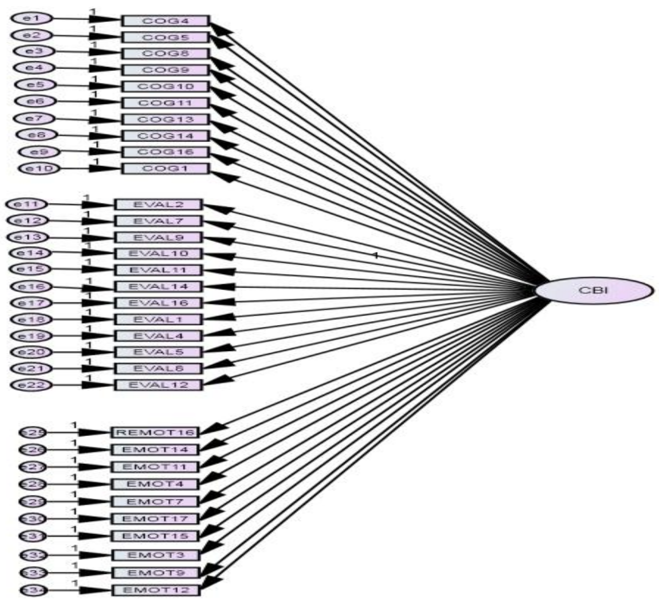


Figure 7.6 Consumer-Brand Identification One-Factor Model (Scale Development Study)

7.4.4.2. Alternative Measurement Models Estimation

The fit indices of each model were examined to assess which model best fits the data. In general, X^2 /df less than 5 is considered adequate, with lower values being superior (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). For GFI, higher values are deemed acceptable, with the generally acceptable cut-off point being .90 (Hair et al., 2010). For SRMR, values below the cut-off value of .05 are indicative of good model fit. Values of .08 or less for RMSEA are considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2010). Regarding CFI and TLI, values close to .95 are indicative of good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998). For PNFI and PCFI statistics, higher values are indicative of relatively better model fit with the generally acceptable threshold point is .5 for each (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Taken together, the five-factor model was found to outperform other models on absolute measures (x2/df, GFI, SRMR, and RMSEA), incremental fit measures (CFI and TLI), and parsimonious fit measures (PNFI and PCFI): X^2 (454) = 2023.8 (p<.000), X^2 /df= 4.458, GFI= .811, CFI=.931, TLI=.924, SRMR= .036, RMSEA=.074, PNFI=.835, PCFI=.852. Table 7.18 details the results of goodness-of-fit indices of measurement models.

Measurement Model	χ^2	**df**	**Normed χ^2/ dF**	**GFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**SRMR**	**RMSEA**	**PNFI**	**PCFI**
Model 1: Five-factor model	2023.8	454	4.458	.811	.931	.924	.036	.074	.835	.852
Model 2: Four-factor model	2337.7	458	5.104	.774	.917	.910	.037	.081	.830	.847
Model 3: Three-factor model	2190.5	402	5.449	.773	.917	.910	.038	.084	.832	.847
Model 3: Three-factor model (based on SIT)	3215.2	461	6.974	.692	.878	.869	.051	.097	.800	.816
Model 5: One-factor model	4775.2	464	10.291	.572	.809	.796	.065	.121	.742	.757

χ^2 = chi square, d.f. = degrees of freedom, GFI = goodness-of-fit index, CFI= comparative fit index, TLI= Tucker-Lewis index SRMR = standardised root mean square residual, RMSEA= root mean square error of approximation, PNFI= parsimony normed fit index, PCFI= parsimony comparative fit index.

Table 7.18 Fit Indices of Alternative Measurement Models (Scale Development Study)

7.4.4.3. Model Respecification (Modification)

Although the fit measures for the five-factor model were better than all other tested models, overall the model fit indices suggested room for improvement in terms of model fit. Although CFI and TLI met the generally acceptable cut-off point of .90, GFI fell short of the recommended value of .90. It is worth noting that both CFI and TLI fell short of the more stringent .95 criterion recommended by Hu and Bentler (1998). Although SRMR was below the conservative value of .05, RMSEA was only .074. An inspection of fit indices, standardised residuals and modification indices indicated that additional purification of the scale was needed to achieve model fit improvement. Measurement model respecification is mostly performed when there is a room for model fit improvement (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Consequently, the model modification proceeded in an iterative manner where poor performing items were removed one by one based on both the data (parameter estimates, standardised residuals, and modification indices) and the theoretical foundations.

Modification indices (MIs) were examined to identify cross loadings, where items with modification indices greater than 4 and standardised residuals (SR) greater than 2.58 are considered candidates for removal (Hair et al., 2010). The process took eleven iterations (i.e. eleven items were removed) to remove poorly performing items and purify the measurement model to an acceptable fit. Eval14, Cog14 and Eval12 cross-loaded on four different dimensions and thus were removed. Another two items (Cog8, Emot4) were dropped, where both items cross loaded on three different factors. Eval8, Cog9, Eval11, and Emot11 were also removed where items cross loaded on two different factors (MIs ranged from 4.5 to 11.5). Finally, another two items (Emot3 and Eval16) having a pattern of standardised residuals greater than 2.5 were subject to deletion. This resulted in five-factor model consisting of 21 items, with no items exhibiting modification indices greater than 4 or standardised residuals greater than 2. A final confirmatory model was then estimated on the remaining 21 items, 7 cognitive identification items, 5 affective identification items, 4 public evaluation items, 3 private evaluation items and 2 emotional responses items. The model demonstrated a noticeable improvement in fit: X^2 (179) = 645.3, ($p<.000$), X^2/df= 3.6, GFI= .907, CFI=.965, TLI=.959, SRMR= .03, RMSEA=.064. SRMR value of .03 is below the conservative value of .05 and RMSEA value of .064 is lower than .08 the recommended guideline. Using the 90% confidence interval for RMSEA, it was found that the upper bound (.07) is below the recommended value. Normed X^2 was 3.6 where values between 2.0 and 5.0 are considered acceptable, thus providing additional support for model fit. GFI exceeded the generally acceptable guidelines. Both CFI and TLI exceeded Hu and Bentler (1998) stringent cut-off values. Consequently, CBI five-factor model was regarded as the best model in in terms of fit. The resulting measurement model is presented in Figure 7.7. Standardised item loading estimates on their postulated dimensions ranged from .767 to .927 (Table 7.20) with t-values ranging from 23.26 to 44.07 (p<0.000), indicating highly significant item loadings (Table 7.19).

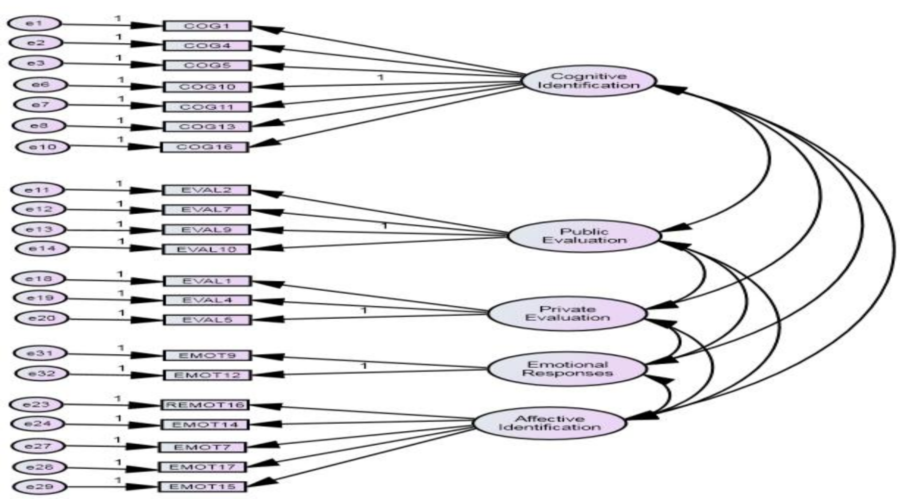


Figure 7.7 Consumer-Brand Identification Best Fitted Measurement Model Based On Scale Development Analyses (Five-Factor Model)

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Indicator	Dimension	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
COG10 I am a true fan of this brand because it reflect an important part of who I am.	Cognitive Identification	1.000			
COG5 In general, this brand is an important part of my self-image	Cognitive Identification	.955	.032	30.171	***
COG4 I consider this brand to be like a part of me	Cognitive Identification	.986	.032	30.927	***
COG11 This brand shows who I am	Cognitive Identification	1.007	.031	32.404	***
COG13 This brand reflects some aspects of my self-identity	Cognitive Identification	.947	.035	27.388	***
COG16 This brand reflects who I am	Cognitive Identification	1.046	.032	32.966	***
COG1 This brand has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	Cognitive Identification	.934	.035	26.963	***
EVAL9 My association with this brand improves the way others view me	Public Evaluation	1.000			
EVAL7 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand	Public Evaluation	.983	.031	31.781	***
EVAL2 Associating with this brand gives me social approval	Public Evaluation	.860	.035	24.514	***
EVAL10 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.	Public Evaluation	.967	.032	30.491	***
EVAL5 I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand.	Private Evaluation	1.000			
EVAL4 I am glad to be associated with this brand.	Private Evaluation	.929	.032	29.318	***
EVAL1 I feel good about my association with this brand.	Private Evaluation	.845	.031	26.892	***
EMOT12 If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.	Emotional Responses	1.000			
EMOT9 A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.	Emotional Responses	1.128	.048	23.270	***
EMOT15 I feel a personal connection to this brand	Affective Identification	1.245	.052	23.770	***
EMOT17 I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.	Affective Identification	1.204	.051	23.818	***
EMOT7 I would experience an emotional loss if this brand is no longer around.	Affective Identification	1.101	.053	20.834	***
EMOT14 I have a special bond with this brand.	Affective Identification	1.204	.051	23.825	***
EMOT16 I do not feel emotionally attached to this brand	Affective Identification	1.000			

*** Probability < .000

Table 7.19 Unstandardised Item Loadings for Five-Factor CFA Model -Coefficients, Standard Errors and t-values (Scale Development Study)

	Factors					
Indicator	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**SMC**
COG10 I am a true fan of this brand because it reflect an important part of who I am.	.876					.768
COG5 In general, this brand is an important part of my self-image	.857					.734
COG4 I consider this brand to be like a part of me	.867					.752
COG11 This brand shows who I am	.886					.785
COG13 This brand reflects some aspects of my self-identity	.815					.664
COG16 This brand reflects who I am	.893					.797
COG1 This brand has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.808					.653
EVAL9 My association with this brand improves the way others view me		.896				.803
EVAL7 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand		.880				.774
EVAL2 Associating with this brand gives me social approval		.767				.589
EVAL10 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.		.862				.743
EVAL5 I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand.			.872			.760
EVAL4 I am glad to be associated with this brand.			.883			.779
EVAL1 I feel good about my association with this brand.			.838			.702
EMOT12 If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.				.847		.718
EMOT9 A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.				.911		.829
EMOT15 I feel a personal connection to this brand					.925	.856
EMOT17 I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.					.927	.860
EMOT7 I would experience an emotional loss if this brand is no longer around.					.818	.670
EMOT14 I have a special bond with this brand.					.927	.860
EMOT16 I do not feel emotionally attached to this brand					.725	.525

Factor 1= Cognitive Identification, Factor2= Public Evaluation, Factor 3= Private Evaluation, 4= Emotional Responses, 5= Affective Identification SMC= Squared Multiple Correlation

Table 7.20 Standardised Item Loadings for Five-Factor CFA Model (Scale Development Study)

7.4.4.4. Convergent Validity

Three criteria were used in evaluating the scale's convergent validity. First, standardised factor loadings should be at least greater than .5 and ideally .7. Second, composite reliability (CR) should exceed the recommended level of .7. Finally, Average variance extracted (AVE) should be greater than the generally acceptable cut-off point of .5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As Table 7.20 displays, all factor loading estimates were above .7 and all were significant with t-values ranging from 23.26 to 44.07 (p<0.000), providing support of the scale's convergent validity. For each dimension, CR and AVE were calculated using Fornell and Larcker's (1981) formulas

$$\text{CR} = \frac{(\text{Sum of Standardised Loadings})^2}{(\text{Sum of Standardised Loadings})^2 + \text{Sum of indicator Measurement Error}}$$

$$\text{AVE} = \frac{\text{Sum of Squared Standardised Loadings}}{\text{Sum of Squared Standardised Loadings} + \text{Sum of indicator Measurement Error}}$$

As Table 7.21 shows, all composite reliabilities were above the recommended level of .7 (ranged from .87 to .95), exhibiting convergent validity of the scale. The AVE estimates ranged from .72 to .77, exceeding the .50 rule of thumb, providing further support of the scale's convergent validity. Taken together, the data supports the convergent validity of the scale.

	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5
Emotional Responses (1)	0.872	0.774	**0.880**				
Cognitive Identification (2)	0.951	0.736	0.716	**0.858**			
Public Evaluation (3)	0.914	0.727	0.607	0.794	**0.853**		
Private Evaluation (4)	0.899	0.747	0.545	0.802	0.740	**0.865**	
Affective Identification (5)	0.938	0.754	0.700	0.956	0.728	0.798	**0.868**

Table 7.21 Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliabilities (CR), Construct Correlations, and Square Root of AVE on the Diagonal (Scale Development Study)

7.4.4.5. Discriminant Validity

Despite the acceptable fit of the five-factor model of CBI, the high correlation between cognitive identification and affective identification dimensions (r= .956) presents a threat to discriminant validity between the two dimensions. Discriminant validity was assessed using Fornell and Larcker's (1981) recommended procedures, where AVE estimates for each dimension exceeds the square of the correlation between all possible pairs of dimensions. As Table 7.21 illustrates, all square root of AVE estimates (on the diagonal) are greater than the corresponding correlation estimates for each pair of dimensions, except for cognitive identification and affective identification dimensions. Specifically, the correlation between cognitive identification and affective identification dimensions ($\varphi 2$ = .95) exceeded the square root of AVE estimates for both cognitive identification of .858 and affective identification of .875. This indicates potential discriminant validity issues regarding these two dimensions. Therefore, discriminant validity was further assessed using two additional tests.

First, a chi-square difference test was conducted by comparing a model, where the correlation parameter between the suspected dimensions was fixed to one (i.e. constrained model), to the baseline model i.e. unconstrained model (Anderson &

Gerbing, 1988). Discriminant validity is achieved if the chi-square for the unconstrained model is significantly lower than the constrained model. It was found that the chi-square for the unconstrained model ($\chi 2$ (53) = 310.246, p= 0.000) was significantly lower than the constrained model ($\chi 2$ (54) = 379.98, p= 0.000), providing evidence of discriminant validity between cognitive identification and affective identification dimensions.

Second, discriminant analysis was also evaluated by examining the confidence interval around the correlation between cognitive and affective identification dimensions. Discriminant validity is supported if the correlation plus or minus two standard errors does not include the value one (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The confidence interval for the correlation between cognitive identification and affective identification did not include the value of one ($.94 < .956 < .969$), showing evidence of discriminant validity. At the end of the scale development study, since two of three statistical tests provided evidence of discriminant validity, it can be said that some evidence of discriminant validity exists. It should be noted that the five-factor model demonstrated better model fit compared to the four-factor model where cognitive and affective items loaded on the same factor. Moreover, there are theoretical reasons for accepting that cognitive identification and affective identification are distinct but correlated constructs. Therefore, it was decided to keep both dimensions, but five new items (Appendix D1) were added to provide more distinction among dimensions, which is a common procedure in the scale development process (e.g. Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). The CBI scale now contains 26 items representing five dimensions.

Discriminant validity between both dimensions is further assessed in subsequent studies.

7.4.5. Common Method Bias

There is a potential for common method bias with all self-reported data (Podsakoff et al., 2003). As explained in Section 6.7.4, several procedural remedies related to the questionnaire design were undertaken to minimise method variance. Statistical analysis to assess the severity of common method bias was utilised using Williams et al. (2010) CFA marker technique. To examine the presence of biasing effects, this technique uses a variable that is theoretically unrelated to other variables in the proposed model i.e. marker variable. In line with Williams et al. (2010) suggestions, a three-item fantasy construct (Malhotra et al., 2006) was selected as the marker variable as no theoretical linkages between this marker variable and dimensions of CBI have been reported in the literature. Following the marker variable selection, five-nested CFA models are estimated to test for the presence and equality of method variance associated with the marker variable: the CFA model, the Baseline model, Method-C model, Method-U model, and Method-R model. In the CFA model (Figure 7.8), all variables (including the marker variable) are allowed to correlate. In addition, all loadings and errors are freely estimated and are specified to load on their postulated latent variables. The main objective of this model is to obtain factor loadings and measurement error variance estimates for the three marker variable indicators to be used in subsequent models. The baseline model (Figure 7.9) is similar to the CFA model except that the loadings and errors of the marker variable are fixed to the estimates obtained from the CFA model and the correlations between the marker variable and the all other variables in the model are fixed to zero.

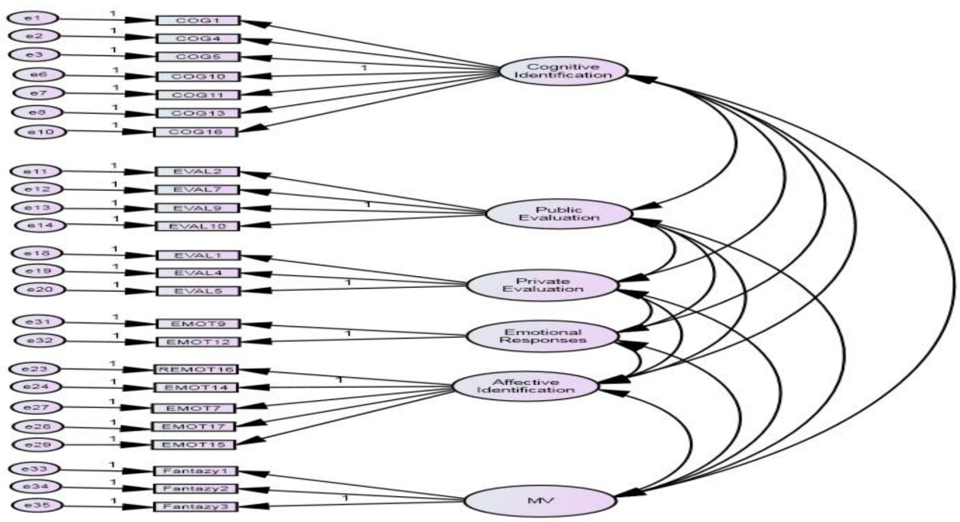

Figure 7.8 Common Method Bias-CFA Model (Scale Development Study)

Consistent with Lindell and Whitney (2001), the marker variable is assumed to be orthogonal in the baseline model. Method- C model (Figure 7.10) is similar to the baseline model except that it adds factor loadings, constrained to be equal in size, from the marker variable to each indicator of all variables in the model. A comparison of Method-C model (i.e. non-congeneric model) and baseline model addresses the presence of equal method variance effects associated with the maker variable. Method-U model (i.e. congeneric model) is similar to Method-C model except that the factor loadings from the marker variable to each indicator of all variables in the model are freely estimated. A comparison of Method-C model and Method-U model addresses the presence of unequal method variance effects associated with the maker variable. Finally, Method-R model uses the factor correlation values obtained from the CFA model as fixed values in either Method-C model or Method-U model (depending on which is supported). This comparison provides a means for testing the presence of method effects associated with the marker variable on substantive relations between variables. Figures 7.11 and 7.12 present Method-U model and Method-R model. The model fit results for each model are presented in Table 7.22, including the chi-square, degrees of freedom, comparative fit in The comparison of the baseline and Method-C models provided support that method variance is present as there was a significant difference between both models. dex (CFI) values, and chi-square comparison tests.

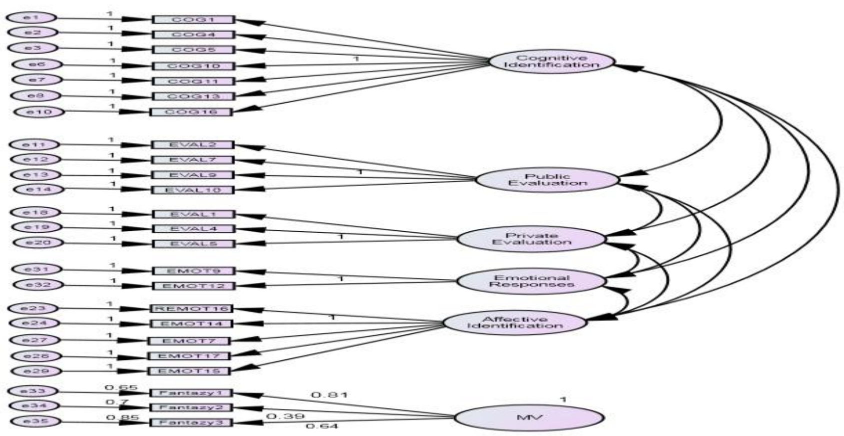

Figure 7.9 Common Method Bias-The Baseline Model (Scale Development Study)

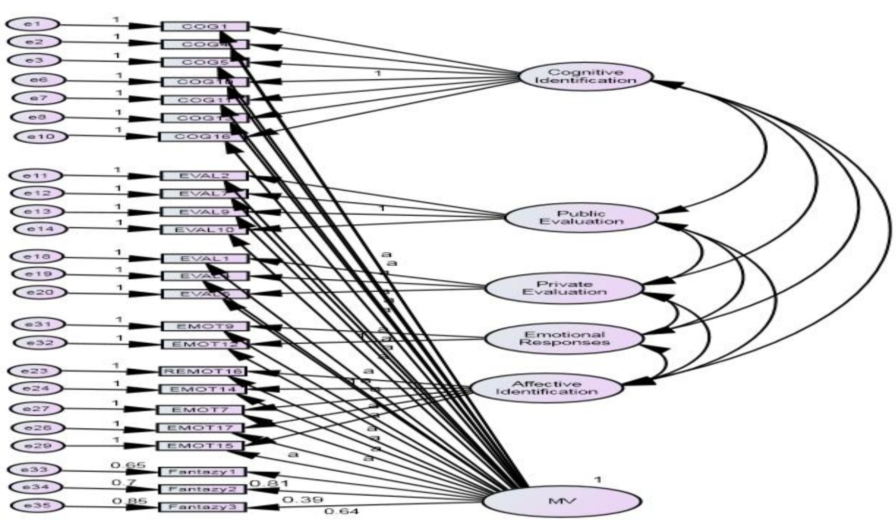

Figure 7.10 Common Method Bias-Method-C Model (Scale Development Study)

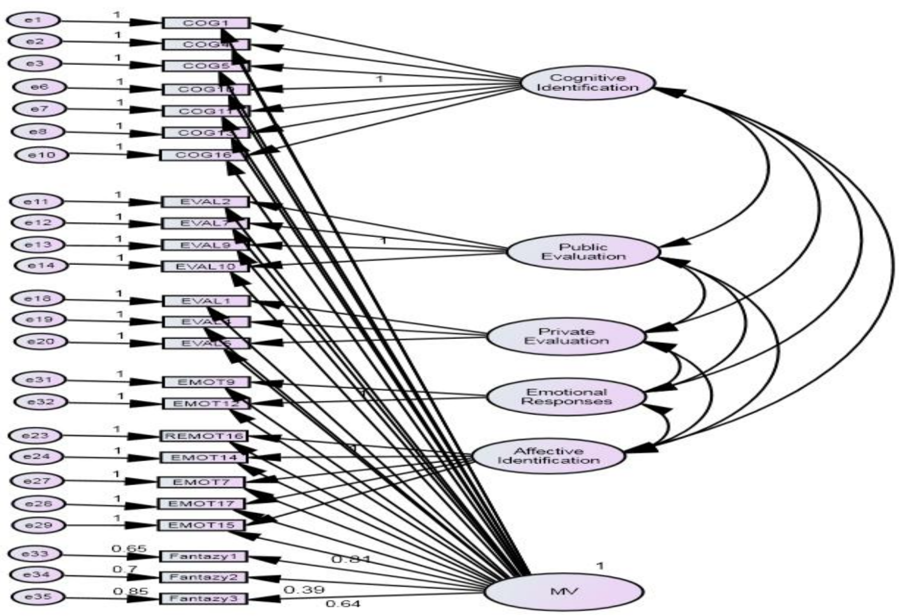

Figure 7.11 Common Method Bias-Method-U Model (Scale Development Study)

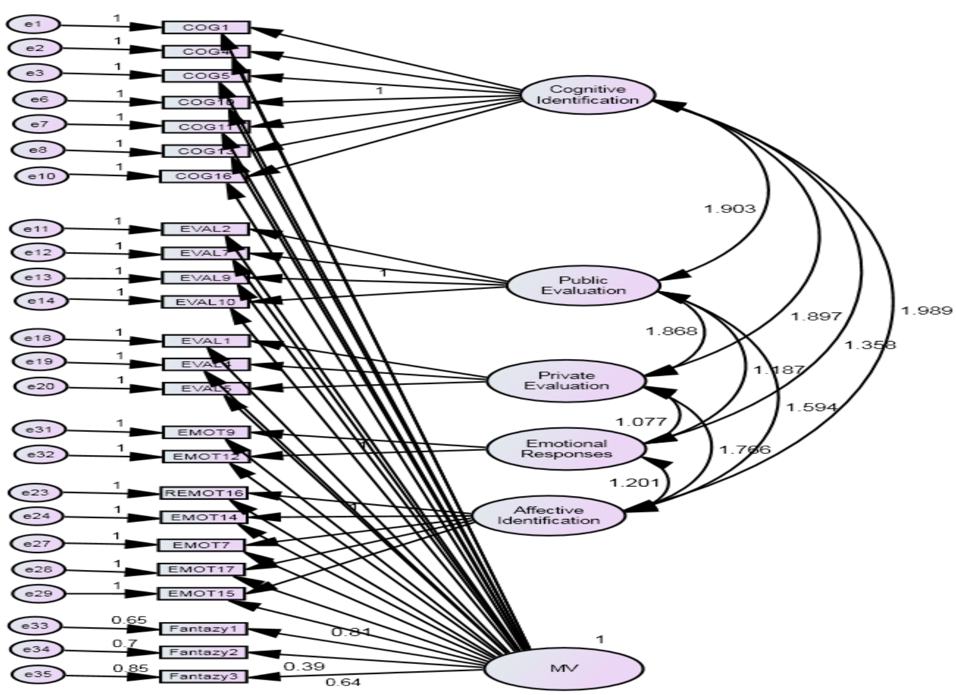

Figure 7.12 Common Method Bias-Method-R Model (Scale Development Study)

	Model Fit				Chi Square Model Comparison Tests				Conclusion
Model	**X^2**	**df**	**P**	**CFI**	**Δ Models**	**Δ X^2**	**Δ df**	**P**	
CFA Model	791.9	237	0.000	0.960					
Baseline Model	802.974	245	0.000	0.960					
Method-C Model	787.014	244	0.000	0.960	Baseline vs. Method-C	15.96	1	0.000	This comparison provides a test of the presence of method variance associated with the marker variable. A chi square difference of 15.96 with one degree of freedom exceeds chi square critical value of .05 for one degree of freedom of 3.84. Thus, this test supports the presence of method variance.
Method- U Model	747.131	224	0.000	0.962	Method-C vs. Method-U	39.88	20	0.005	This comparison determines if the impact of the marker variable was equal among the entire 21 items. The chi square was found to be significant, providing support that the method factor loadings are unequal. Therefore, Method-U model represents the best model for accounting for marker variance on substantive indicators.
Method-R Model	750.093	234	0.000	0.962	Method-U vs. Method-R	2.962	10	0.982	This comparison determines the effects of the marker variable on the factor correlation parameter estimates. The chi-square difference test was found to be not significant, providing support that the marker variable did not significantly affect the factor correlation estimates.

Table 7.22 Common Method Bias-Goodness of Fit Values and Model Comparison Tests (Scale Development Study)

Specifically, the comparison revealed a chi-square difference of 15.96 with one degree of freedom, which exceeds the .05 chi-square critical value for one degree of freedom of 3.84. Next, a comparison between Method-C and Method-U models was found to be statistically significant, indicating that the impact of the method marker variable was unequal for all factor loadings. That is, the marker variable differentially influences factor loadings. Based on these results, Method-U model was considered the best model for accounting for marker variance on substantive indicators. As shown in Table 7.23, the standardised factor loadings for Method-U model ranged from .721 to .918 and all indicators loaded significantly ($p<0.001$) on their postulated constructs. In terms of the method factor loadings, 10 of the 21 items were statically significant at $p<.05$ level and one item was statistically significant at the $p < .001$ level. These significant values ranged from .108 to.170 and the median value was .120. This significance indicates that the item was contaminated by a source of method variance captured by the marker variable. The square of these values indicates the percentage of variance in the indicator associated with the marker variable, indicating that the median value of marker variance in each indicator was 1.4%, which is very small compared to Williams et al. (2010) variance of 9.6%. Given the magnitude of method variance compared to Williams et al. (2010), it can be concluded that common method bias does not represent a serious concern at the indicator level. To assess the marker variable influence on the correlation parameter estimates of the latent factors, a final comparison was conducted between Method-U and Method-R models. It was found that the chi-square difference test comparing the two models was not significant, indicating that the effects of the marker variable did not significantly bias the correlation estimates between the five dimensions.

Item	Cognitive identification	Affective Identification	Public Evaluation	Private Evaluation	Emotional Responses	Marker Variable	t-value	P
COG4	.865**					.068†	1.365	.172
COG5	.857**					.054†	1.072	.284
COG10	.868**					.117*	2.343	.019
COG11	.878**					.120*	2.392	.017
COG13	.806**					.116*	2.314	.021
COG16	.885**					.122*	2.431	.015
COG1	.818**					.024†	.481	.630
EMOT7		.811**				.108*	2.157	.031
EMOT14		.913**				.170**	3.406	.000
EMOT15		.916**				.124*	2.489	.013
EMOT17		.918**				.129*	2.582	.010
REMOT16		.721**				.073†	1.465	.143
EVAL2			.763**			.077†	1.551	.121
EVAL7			.872**			.120*	2.405	.016
EVAL9			.893**			.080†	1.609	.108
EVAL10			.859**			.073†	1.464	.143
EVAL1				.831**		.115*	2.310	.021
EVAL4				.884**		.042†	.838	.402
EVAL5				.867**		.078†	1.557	.119
EMOT9					.911**	.064†	1.270	.204
EMOT12					.839**	.109*	2.186	.029
FANTAZY1						.705		
FANTAZY2						.405		
FANTAZY3						.572		

**p<0.001, *p<0.05, †- not significant

Table 7.23 Common Method Bias-Method-U Model Standardised Factor Loadings (Scale Development Study)

7.5. Phase 2 – Initial Validation Study (2nd Sample)

The previous sections illustrated how a consumer-brand identification measurement model was iteratively developed and demonstrated satisfactory levels of fit and construct validity. The purposes of this study are fourfold. First, to further reduce the number of items based on their psychometric properties, this scale is considered too long to be included in most research (Voss et al., 2003). Second, to confirm the dimensionality structure and the stability of the CBI scale using a new sample of brands and respondents. Third, to examine the convergent validity of the CBI scale by comparing the new scale to established scales measuring consumer identification. Finally, to assess the discriminant validity of the scale from a number of similarly related constructs in the marketing literature.

7.5.1. Preliminary Data Analysis

7.5.1.1. Data Cleaning

In the second round of data collection, 809 respondents completed the questionnaire in August 2013 (3 August 2013 to 13 August 2013). Once again, the data obtained was examined and revised to ensure that they are all recorded correctly. Treatment of missing values was not conducted in this study given that respondents were forced to answer all the questions. Three statements were included within the questionnaire as data quality checks (see Appendix B5 for the location of these quality check questions) : "If you read this item, please select "Not at all" as a response to this question" and "To ensure that participants are reading the questions, please select "Extremely" as a response to this question" with a seven-point scale anchored 1=Not at all and 7=Extremely. The third statement was “I have tried to answer all of the questions honestly and accurately” with a Likert response format of 1= Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree. The respondents who selected any other answer to the former questions or answered 1,2,3,4 to the latter question were removed from the data set. Once again, additional respondents were removed from the data set based on obvious response patterns identified in the visual inspection of the actual questionnaires. The sample size after initial data cleaning was 696, which was subject to further data screening procedures.

7.5.1.2. Test of Outliers

Similar to the first study, Z-scores and boxplots were used to detect potential outliers i.e. cases that are extremely high or low. Z-scores were calculated for each item and it was found that all cases were below ± 3.29 ($p<0.001$). Using boxplots, a number of outliers were found as shown in Table 7.24. Outliers related to these items were not considered unique because it normal to find respondents who extremely agree or disagree with these items. Therefore, no observations were deleted as they did not appear to be unrepresentative of the population.

Item	Case Number
It feels good to be associated with this brand.	617, 632, 636, 640, 660, 664, 668, 673, 677, 684, 695.
I feel happy to be associated with this brand.	611, 619, 633, 660, 668, 672, 679, 683, 684, 694, 695

Table 7.24 Assessment of Outliers Using Boxplots (Initial Validation Study)

7.5.1.3. Test of Normality

Similar to the procedures in the first study, the tests of normality were initially conducted via skewness and kurtosis. It was found that the skewness positive values ranged from .022 to .924 and negative values from - .010 to - .708. With respect to kurtosis, the negative values ranged from -.182 to -.1.256 and only one item had a positive value of .112. Overall, the skewness and kurtosis values were below 2 and 7 respectively, indicating more or less normally distributed data (Curran et al., 1996). A further examination of the normality assumption was performed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) tests. As Table 7.25 shows, all items for both tests of normality were significant (p=0.000). However, as previously indicated, significant results in large samples (200 or more) can be easily obtained when small deviations from normality exist, thus values of skewness and kurtosis rather than significance tests are preferable indicators of normality (Field, 2005)

Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig	Statistic	df	Sig
CBI1	.212	696	.000	.904	696	.000
CBI2	.203	696	.000	.907	696	.000
CBI3	.191	696	.000	.915	696	.000
CBI4	.181	696	.000	.910	696	.000
CBI5	.171	696	.000	.922	696	.000
CBI6	.156	696	.000	.932	696	.000
CBI7	.258	696	.000	.841	696	.000
CBI8	.175	696	.000	.910	696	.000
CBI9	.140	696	.000	.922	696	.000
CBI10	.174	696	.000	.927	696	.000
CBI11	.172	696	.000	.930	696	.000
CBI12	.187	696	.000	.923	696	.000
CBI13	.140	696	.000	.932	696	.000
CBI14	.187	696	.000	.910	696	.000
CBI15	.223	696	.000	.874	696	.000

CBI16	.169	696	.000	.929	696	.000
CBI17	.195	696	.000	.904	696	.000
CBI18	.171	696	.000	.919	696	.000
CBI19	.171	696	.000	.920	696	.000
CBI20	.168	696	.000	.925	696	.000
CBI21	.151	696	.000	.926	696	.000
CBI22	.201	696	.000	.905	696	.000
CBI23	.182	696	.000	.915	696	.000
CBI24	.206	696	.000	.884	696	.000
CBI25	.201	696	.000	.898	696	.000
CBI26	.171	696	.000	.908	696	.000

Table 7.25 Assessment of Normality Using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk (Initial Validation Study)

7.5.2. Demographic Profile of Respondents

This section reports the sample characteristics focusing primarily on their gender, age, annual income and education level. After data cleaning 696 usable questionnaires were remained. Number of questionnaires classified by brands is featured in Table 7.26.

	Total	**Athletic Shoes**				**Beer**			
		Sketchers		**Nike**		**Budweiser**		**Guinness**	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Number of questionnaires	696	167	24	201	28.9	165	23.7	163	23.4

Table 7.26 Number of Surveys Classified By Brands (Initial Validation Study)

Similar to the scale development study, the distribution of the age of respondents revealed that the biggest segment of respondents in Sketchers, Nike, Budweiser, and Guinness were aged between 26-35, with 37.7%, 34.6%, 38.8%, 46% respectively, followed by respondents aged between 18-25 (24.6%, 31.3%, 18.8 %, 21.5% respectively). About half of the respondents were male in Nike Shoes and

Budweiser Beer (54.2%, 57.6% respectively). Female represented the majority in Sketchers Shoes (64.1%) whereas 70.6% of the respondents were male in Guinness beer. Overall, the gender split was 54.5% male and 45.5% females. With respect to the income levels for respondents who selected Sketchers, Nike, Budweiser, Guinness, 37.1%, 37.8%, 30.3%, 25.2% respectively, had an annual income of $20.001or less; 22.2%, 17.9%, 26.1%, 33.7% respectively, earned between $20,001- $40,000; and 20.4%, 20.9%, 20.6%, 22.7% respectively, had an annual income of $ 40,001- 60,000. Similar to the first study, high school graduates (44.3%, 38.3%, 37.6%, and 32.5%) and undergraduates (46.1%, 49.8%, 47.9%, and 52.1%) were the majority for all brands. The sample characteristics classified by brands is outlined in Table 7.27.

	Total Sample		**Athletic Shoes**				**Beer**			
			Sketchers (167 responses)		**Nike** (201 responses)		**Budweiser** (165 responses)		**Guinness** (163 responses)	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Gender										
Male	379	54.5	60	35.9	109	54.2	95	57.6	115	70.6
Female	317	45.5	107	64.1	92	45.8	70	42.4	48	29.4
Age Category										
18-25	170	24.4	41	24.6	63	31.3	31	18.8	35	21.5
26-35	272	39.1	63	37.7	70	34.6	64	38.8	75	46
36-45	115	16.5	31	18.6	28	13.9	24	14.5	32	19.6
46-55	80	11.5	16	9.6	27	13.4	23	13.9	14	8.6
56-65	51	7.3	12	7.2	12	6	21	12.7	6	3.7
65 or more	8	1.1	4	2.4	1	0.5	2	1.2	1	0.6
Annual income										
$20,000 or less	229	32.9	62	37.1	76	37.8	50	30.3	41	25.2
$20,001-$40,000	171	24.6	37	22.2	36	17.9	43	26.1	55	33.7
$40,001-$60,000	147	21.1	34	20.4	42	20.9	34	20.6	37	22.7
$60,001-$80,000	73	10.5	15	9.0	25	12.4	17	10.3	16	9.8
$80,001-$100,000	47	6.8	12	7.2	14	7	13	7.9	8	4.9
More than $100,00	29	4.2	7	4.2	8	4	8	4.8	6	3.7
Level of education										
Less than a high school graduate	2	0.3	Zero	Zero	1	0.5	1	0.6	Zero	Zero
High school graduate	266	38.2	74	44.3	77	38.3	6	37.6	5	32.5
Undergraduate degree	341	49	77	46.1	100	49.8	79	47.9	85	52.1
Postgraduate degree	87	12.5	16	9.6	23	11.4	23	13.9	25	15.3

Table 7.27 Sample Characteristics Classified By Brands (Initial Validation Study)

7.5.3. Exploratory Factor Analysis

In line with Netemeyer et al. (2003) recommendations, a series of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was undertaken on the second data set using SPSS 19.0. At this stage, it is important to examine that all the necessary conditions for conducting EFA are met. First, with an overall sample size of 696 and 26 items the data set was considered sufficient to conduct EFA. Second, the significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (X^2 (325) = 18669.980, p = 0.000) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy of .976 indicated the appropriateness of factor analysis for this data set.

Similar to Study 1, both principal component analysis (PCA) and principal axis factoring (PAF) were employed as the extraction methods and an oblique rotation (promax) was utilised as the rotation method. The resulting eigenvalues, scree test plot, and explained variance were employed as decision criteria to determine the number of factors to retain. Using PCA and PAF, the eigenvalue, with values greater than one, suggested a muddled and untidy two- factor solution and the explained variance accounted for 69.3% and 66.6% respectively. The evaluation of the number of factors was further assessed using the scree plot, suggesting a three-factor solution. Given the subjectivity of determining the elbow, examining alternative factor solutions is encouraged in the literature (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Therefore, three, four, five factors were evaluated using both extraction methods. After running EFAs with three, four, five factors, it was found that the five-factor solution was the most interpretable solution using principal component analysis. In this study, factor loadings greater than .60 were retained, any item exhibiting cross loading over .30 was dropped, and items with communalities less than .5 were also dropped. Consequently, an iterative process ensued whereby items were removed one at a time. The process resulted in nine items being dropped as they failed to load significantly (.60) on their postulated dimensions. The result was a five-factor solution with 17 items (see Table 7.28), accounting for 80.5% of the total variance, with no loadings less than .6, no cross loadings >.3, and all communalities >.5. The first and the fifth factors consisted of two items, the second included five items, and the third and the fourth factors included four items each.

Principal axis factoring yielded a consistent pattern of results. After dropping ten items that failed to load significantly on their intended factors, the results disclosed a clean five-factor solution with 16 items accounting for 74% of the total variance (see Table 7.29), with no loadings <.6, no cross loadings >.3 and all communalities >.5. Unlike PCA, only four items loaded significantly on the affective identification dimension. The remaining 12 items loaded significantly on their postulated dimensions as they did using PCA. In line with Netemeyer et al. (2003: 126-127), "*items that do not meet certain statistical criteria or rules of thumb but have face and/or content validity should be retained for the next round of studies*". If these items continue to perform poorly, then they can be deleted in subsequent analysis. Therefore, it was decided to retain the 17 items for further analysis.

	Factor Loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	Communalities
CBI2 This brand is central to my identity.	.872					.860
CBI3 My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity.	.864					.851
CBI4 I would experience an emotional loss if this brand is no longer around.		.819				.660
CBI9 I feel a personal connection to this brand.		.705				.784
CBI10 I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.		.665				.794
CBI20 I have a special bond with this brand.		.817				.826
CBI26 I feel emotionally attached to this brand.		.912				.830
CBI5 I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand.			.837			.736
CBI17 I am glad to be associated with this brand.			.920			.838
CBI22 It feels good to be associated with this brand.			.803			.816
CBI25 I feel happy to be associated with this brand.			.781			.770
CBI6 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.				.886		.776
CBI11 Associating with this brand gives me social approval.				.766		.767
CBI16 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.				.768		.809
CBI21 My association with this brand improves the way others view me.				.884		.839
CBI1 A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.					.984	.890
CBI15 If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.					.802	.837
Percentage of Variance	60%	7.7%	5.3%	3.9%	3.5%	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation

Table 7.28 Principal Component Analysis: Factor Loadings and Variance Extracted (Initial Validation Study)

	Factor Loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	Communalities
CBI2 This brand is central to my identity.	.861					.792
CBI3 My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity.	.673					.685
CBI9 I feel a personal connection to this brand.		.682				.754
CBI10 I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.		.661				.771
CBI20 I have a special bond with this brand.		.775				.784
CBI26 I feel emotionally attached to this brand.		.863				.779
CBI5 I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand.			.676			.606
CBI17 I am glad to be associated with this brand.			.972			.826
CBI22 It feels good to be associated with this brand.			.749			.770
CBI25 I feel happy to be associated with this brand.			.649			.695
CBI6 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.				.725		.655
CBI11 Associating with this brand gives me social approval.				.681		.692
CBI16 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.				.751		.767
CBI21 My association with this brand improves the way others view me.				.933		.819
CBI1 A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.					.803	.643
CBI15 If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.					.831	.789
Percentage of Variance	59%	6.5%	4%	2.5%	2%	

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Analysis. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation

Table 7.29 Principal Axis Factoring: Factor Loadings and Variance Extracted (Initial Validation Study)

7.5.4. Reliability and Item Statistics

Reliability and item analysis was conducted for each of the five dimensions of the CBI construct with the objective being to assess the internal consistency of subscales and purify the measure by removing poorly performing items. The 17 items retained from the preceding EFA were used here. An examination of corrected item-total correlation of all dimensions disclosed values from .691 to .841 and inter-item correlations ranged from .603 to .780 (see Table 7.30).

Factor and items	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Inter-Item Correlation Range	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
Cognitive Identification				.847
CBI2 This brand is central to my identity.				
CBI3 My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity.				
Affective Identification		.603 - .780		.924
CBI4 I would experience an emotional loss if this brand is no longer around.	.691		.929	
CBI9 I feel a personal connection to this brand.	.817		.903	
CBI10 I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.	.826		.902	
CBI20 I have a special bond with this brand.	.841		.899	
CBI26 I feel emotionally attached to this brand.	.838		.899	
Private Evaluation		.631 - .783		.906
CBI5 I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand.	.717		.903	
CBI17 I am glad to be associated with this brand.	.835		.863	
CBI22 It feels good to be associated with this brand.	.817		.868	
CBI25 I feel happy to be associated with this brand.	.788		.879	
Public Evaluation		.651 - . 774		.913
CBI6 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.	.763		.900	
CBI11 Associating with this brand gives me social approval.	.781		.894	
CBI16 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.	.824		.878	
CBI21 My association with this brand improves the way others view me.	.836		.874	
Emotional Responses				.826
CBI1 A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.				
CBI15 If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.				

Table 7.30 Reliability and Item Analyses (Initial Validation Study)

Therefore, all the items exceeded the prescribed threshold of .50 for corrected item-total correlation and .30 for inter-item correlation (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Additionally, Cronbach alpha for the five dimensions was .847, .924, .906, .913 and .826, which reflects high level of internal consistency within each dimension and satisfies the threshold of .70 as recommended by Nunnally (1978). Based on the above, no items were removed at this stage.

7.5.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A 17-item, five-dimensional factor model was estimated using Amos 19.0. Assessment of model fit revealed indices that were satisfactory ($\chi 2$ (109) = 314.545, p = .000; Normed Chi-Square= 2.886, GFI = .947; CFI = .979; TLI = .974; RMSEA = .052). However, an inspection of the modification indices (MIs) revealed that two items are candidates for removal, each cross loaded on two different dimensions. Specifically, “I would experience an emotional loss if this brand is no longer” loaded on both affective identification and emotional responses dimensions and “I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand” loaded on both cognitive identification and private evaluation dimensions. This iterative process ended with a five-factor model consisting of 15 items, with no items exhibiting modification indices greater than 4 or standardised residuals greater than 2. A second confirmatory factor model was then estimated on the remaining 15 items, 2 cognitive identification items, 4 affective identification items, 4 public evaluation items, 3 private evaluation items, and 2 emotional responses items. Model fit was improved: $\chi 2$ (85) = 200.075, p = .000; Normed Chi-Square= 2.501, GFI = .962, CFI = .986; TLI = .982; RMSEA = .046). The resulting measurement model is presented in Figure 7.13. Standardised item loading estimates on their postulated dimensions ranged from .769 to .915 with t-values ranging from 20.298 to 32. 494 (p<0.000), indicating highly significant item loadings (Table 7.31).

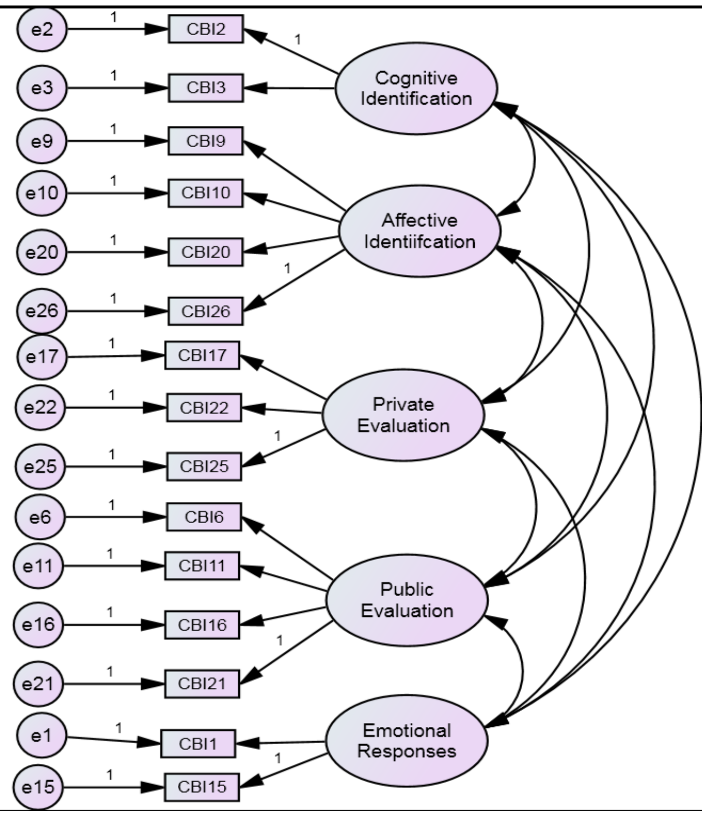

Figure 7.13 Consumer-Brand Identification Five-Factor Model (Initial Validation Study)

Factor and Indicators	Estimates		S.E.	t-value	P
	Unstandardised	Standardised			
Cognitive Identification					
CBI2 This brand is central to my identity.	1.000	.859			
CBI3 My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity.	1.016	.856	.040	25.330	***
Affective Identification					
CBI9 I feel a personal connection to this brand.	.995	.871	.032	30.912	***
CBI10 I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.	.983	.884	.031	31.815	***
CBI20 I have a special bond with this brand.	1.004	.882	.032	31.614	***
CBI26 I feel emotionally attached to this brand.	1.000	.861			
Private Evaluation					
CBI17 I am glad to be associated with this brand.	.957	.867	.033	29.239	***
CBI22 It feels good to be associated with this brand.	1.024	.895	.033	30.757	***
CBI25 I feel happy to be associated with this brand.	1.000	.852			
Public Evaluation					
CBI6 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.	.869	.805	.032	27.436	***
CBI11 Associating with this brand gives me social approval.	.914	.835	.031	29.309	***
CBI16 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.	.962	.881	.030	32.494	***
CBI21 My association with this brand improves the way others view me.	1.000	.882			
Emotional Responses					
CBI1 A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.	.825	.769	.041	20.298	***
CBI15 If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.	1.000	.915			

******* Probability < .000

Table 7.31 Item Loadings for Five-Factor CFA Model – Coefficients, Standard Errors and t-values (Initial Validation Study)

7.5.5.1. Alternative Measurement Models

The need to examine alternative models of underlying data structure is driven by the inconsistencies found between the scale development process, the theoretical foundation of the identification construct and the literature of CBI. It is widely recommended to compare alternative measurement models to select the best-fitted model (e.g. Brakus et al., 2009; Thomson et al., 2005). Model 1 assumed that all items load directly into a latent CBI construct, which is driven by the typical practice of measuring identification in the marketing literature. Chapter Three highlighted that the majority of the empirical studies using brand identification construct typically assumes that it is unidimensional construct. Model 2 hypothesised that the fifteen items form into three correlated first-order factors. Drawing on social identity theory, the identification construct consists of three dimensions, namely, cognitive identification, affective identification and evaluative identification. Based on the results of the EFA conducted in study 1, Model 3 hypothesised that the fifteen items form into four correlated first-order factors (Cognitive/Affective identification, public evaluation, private evaluation, and emotional responses). Model 3H (H indicates higher order construct) assumed that the four first-order latent factors reflect a second order factor, named CBI. The positive and high significant correlation suggests exploring a second order factor model. The common variance shared by the four first-order factors may be caused by a higher abstract construct. Model 4 assumed that the fifteen items form into five correlated first-order factors based on the results of both studies. Based on the same rationale of Model 3H, Model 4H hypothesised that the five first-order latent factors reflect a second order factor.

The fit indices of each model were subsequently examined to assess which model best fits the data. Table 7.32 reports the results of goodness-of-fit indices for the alternative models. By criteria described previously, neither Model 1 nor Model 2 revealed a satisfactory fit with the sample data. Compared to Models 1 and 2, Models 3 and 3H demonstrated better fit on all goodness-of-fit indices. However, the ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom was higher than the value of 5.0 which is required for well-fitting model and RMSEA exceeded the .08 score which is considered evidence of good fit. On the other hand, Models 4 and 4H demonstrated substantially better fit compared to other models. The normed chi-square was lower than 5.0 indicating acceptable model fit. GFI value was substantially higher than the generally acceptable value of .90. Both CFI and TLI were above the stringent value of .95, which is recommended by Hu and Bentler (1998). SRMR and RMSEA values were lower than .05 and .08 respectively, indicating satisfactory model fit.

Both Models 4 and 4H exhibited evidence of good model fit and thus are competing representations of the underlying structure, however, Model 4H was only slightly different in performance compared to Model 4. According to Marsh and Hocevar (1985), “a model that includes a second-order model structure can never produce a model fit that is ‘‘better’’ (i.e. better fitting in terms of the model fit indices) than a model that specifies only first-order correlated factors” (Koufteros et al., 2009: 647). Thus, Model 4H is considered an attractive alternative. Parsimony fit indices (e.g. PNFI, PCFI) are used to compare competing models with different number of estimated parameters by considering both model fit and parsimony (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). For PNFI and PCFI indices, higher values are indicative of relatively better model fit with the generally acceptable threshold point .5 for each. Model 4H provided higher values of both PNFI and PCFI compared to Model 4 (see Table 7.32), indicating relatively better fit on parsimony indices. Moreover, the target coefficient was calculated to provide evidence of the existence of a higher-order construct (Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). This index is used to test whether the second order construct (CBI) accounts for the variation in the five first order factors. Using Model 4 as the target model, the target coefficient is the ratio of chi-square of Model 4 (first order model) to chi-square of Model 4H (second order model). In this case, a target coefficient of .595 (200.75/337.635= 59.5%) provided good evidence of a higher-order construct i.e. the second order factor model explains about 60% of the variation in the five first order factors. A second order construct captures the idea that correlated but distinct constructs can be best explained by a higher order construct (Reed et al., 2011). This means that the second order construct "captures a meaning common to all the dimensions" (Dabholkar et al., 1995: 10). According to Law et al. (1998: 741) recommendation, "in contrast to a set of inter-related unidimensional constructs, the dimensions of multidimensional construct can be conceptualised under an overall abstraction and it is theoretically meaningful and parsimonious to use this overall abstraction as a representation of the dimensions".

Measurement Model	χ^2	df	Normed χ^2 χ^2/ dF	GFI	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA	PNFI	PCFI
Model 1: One-Factor Model	1617.9	90	17.978	.712	.826	.798	.070	.156	.701	.708
Model 2: Three-Factor Model	1025.1	87	11.783	.790	.893	.871	.058	.125	.733	.740
Model 3: Four-Factor Model	476.41	84	5.672	.910	.955	.944	.040	.082	.757	.764
Model 3H: Second Order Factor with Four First Order Factors	526.49	86	6.122	.898	.950	.939	.045	.086	.771	.778
Model 4: Five-Factor Correlated Model	200.08	80	2.501	.962	.986	.982	.020	.046	.745	.752
Model 4H: Second-Order Factor with Five First Order Factors	337.63	85	3.972	.936	.971	.965	.039	.065	.779	.786

χ^2 = chi square, d.f. = degrees of freedom, GFI = goodness-of-fit index, CFI= comparative fit index, TLI= Tucker-Lewis index SRMR = standardised root mean square residual, RMSEA= root mean square error of approximation, PNFI= parsimony normed fit index, PCFI= parsimony comparative fit index.

Five-Factor Correlated Model includes cognitive identification, affective identification, public evaluation, private evaluation and emotional responses dimensions.

Four-Factor Correlated Model includes cognitive /affective identification combined, public evaluation, private evaluation and emotional responses dimensions

Three-Factor Correlated Model includes cognitive identification, affective identification/emotional responses combined and public/private evaluation combined.

Table 7.32 Goodness-of-Fit Indices of Alternative Measurement Models (Initial Validation Study)

Although the discriminant validity among the five dimensions was supported in the first study, the five dimensions are highly correlated (ranged from .524 to .851). According to Koufteros et al. (2009), if highly correlated first order factors are entered simultaneously into a model that posits them as antecedents, it may result in one or even none of these constructs to be related significantly to the proposed endogenous variable. Moreover, it may result in path coefficients with an opposite sign to what might be expected. On an individual basis, each of these variables can have a significant relationship with the hypothesised construct, however due to multicolleneartity, when tested as a group such effects might not be manifested. The results supported Koufteros et al. (2009) argument, where a significant relationship was found between each dimension and brand loyalty on an individual basis (see Figures 7.14- 7.18).

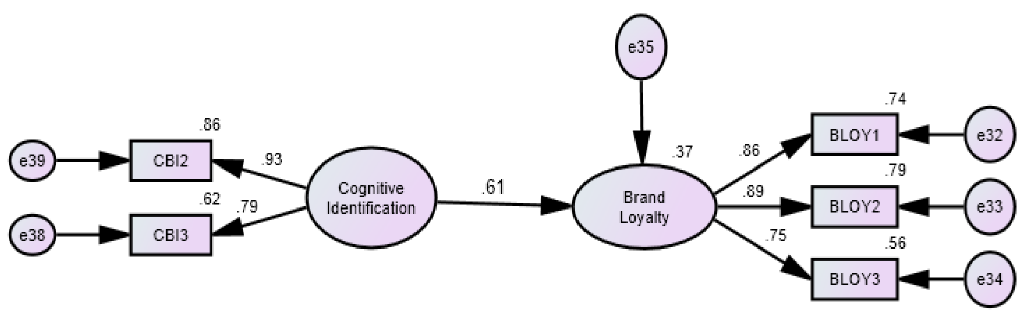

Figure 7.14 Cognitive Identification Dimension and Brand loyalty (Initial Validation Study)

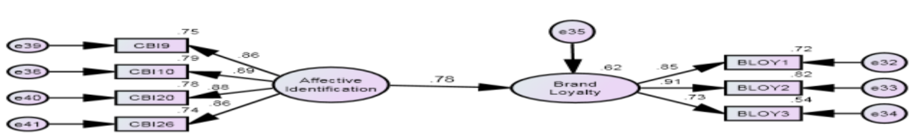

Figure 7.15 Affective Identification Dimension and Brand loyalty (Initial Validation Study)

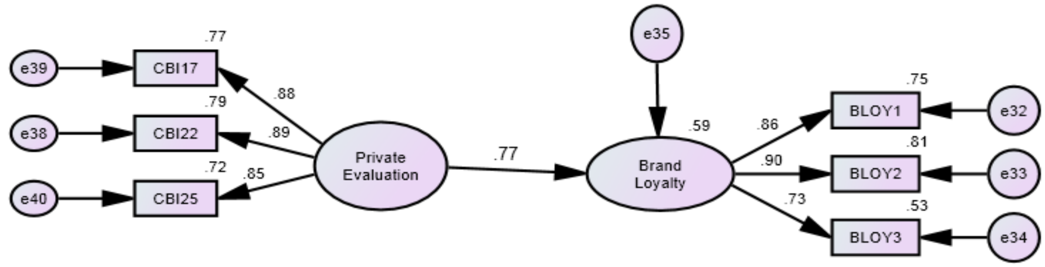

Figure 7.16 Private Evaluation Dimension and Brand loyalty (Initial Validation Study)

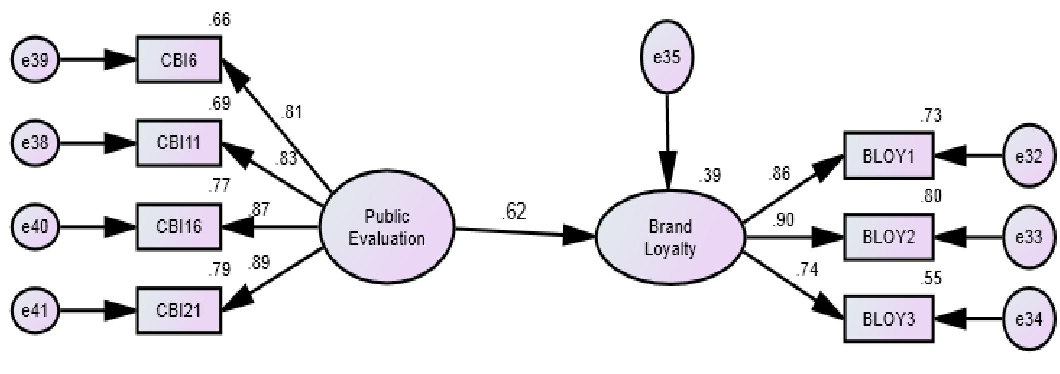

Figure 7.17 Public Evaluation Dimension and Brand loyalty (Initial Validation Study)

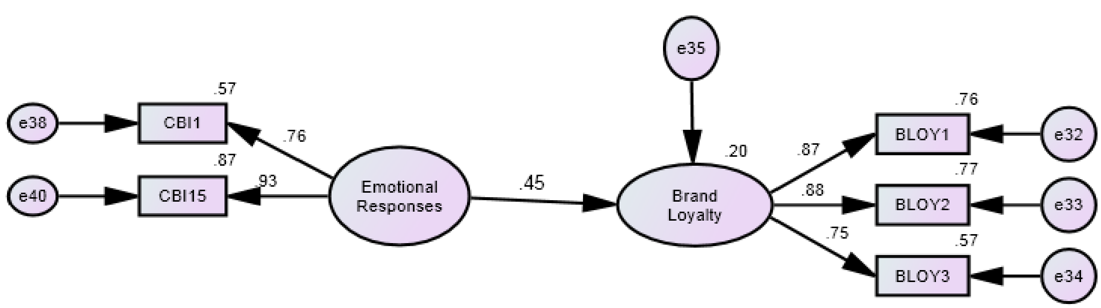

Figure 7.18 Emotional Responses Dimension and Brand loyalty (Initial Validation Study)

However, when grouping them in one model, it was found that in one consumption setting (i.e. the athletics shoes product category) affective identification and private evaluation have a significant relationship with brand loyalty (y = .65, y = .43, p <.001 respectively), while cognitive identification (y =- .05, p <.05), public evaluation (y = -.12, p <.01) and emotional responses (y= -.06, p <.05) have a negative sign (see Figure 7.19). In respect to the other consumption setting (i.e. beer product category), it was found that cognitive identification, affective identification and private evaluation have a significant relationship with brand loyalty (y = .27, y = .34, y= .52, p <.001 respectively), while both public evaluation and emotional responses have a negative relationship with brand loyalty (y= -.29, y=-.06, p <.05) (see Figure 7.20). In both product categories, it was expected that all the effects would be statistically significant and in the expected direction. Given the preceding discussion, the second-order factor model (see Figure 7.21) appears to be the most prudent choice. Convergent and discriminant validity of Model 4H are further examined in detail.

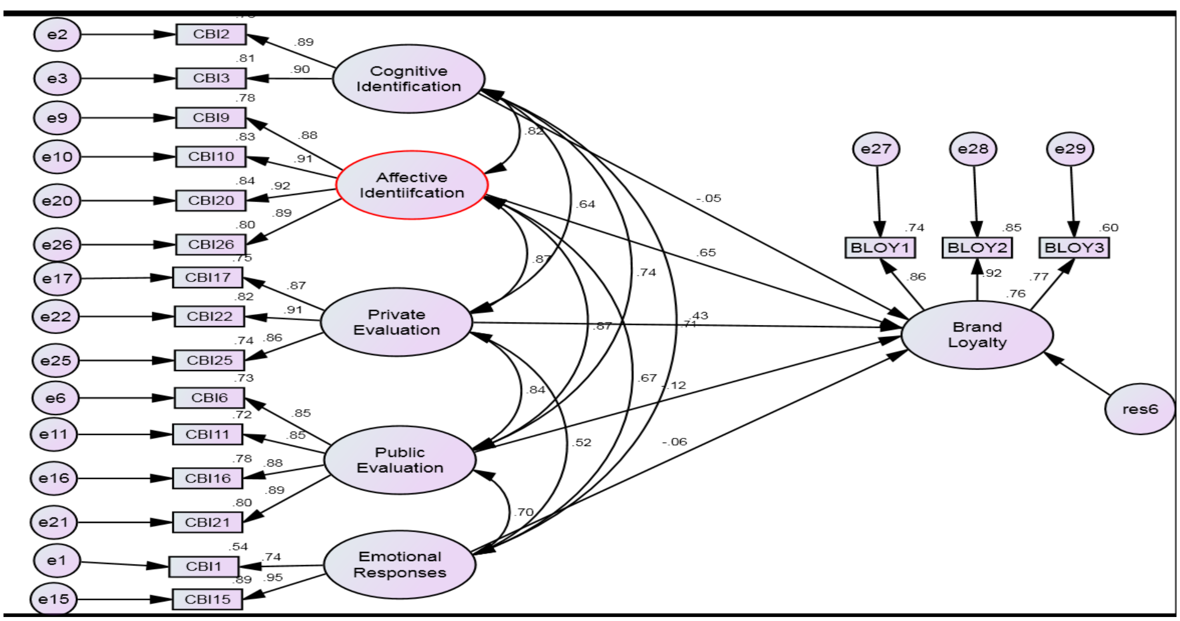

Figure 7.19 Five First Order Factor Model in Athletic Shoes (Initial Validation Study)

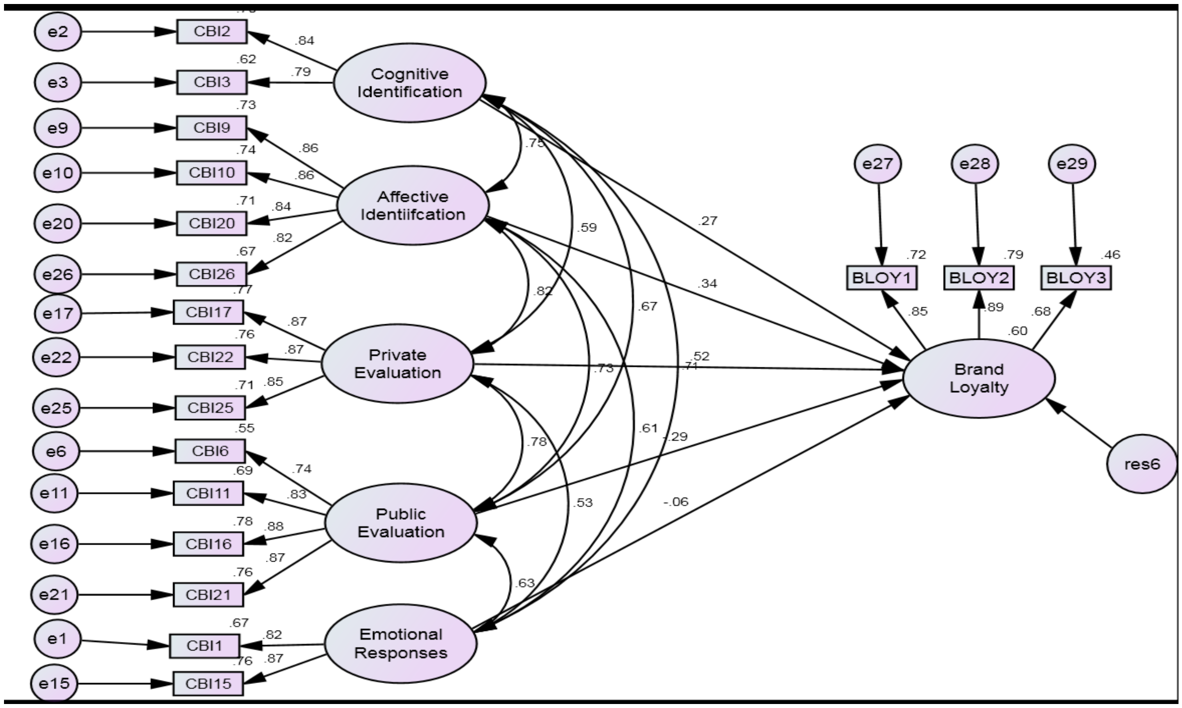

Figure 7.20 Five First Order Factor Model in Beer (Initial Validation Study)

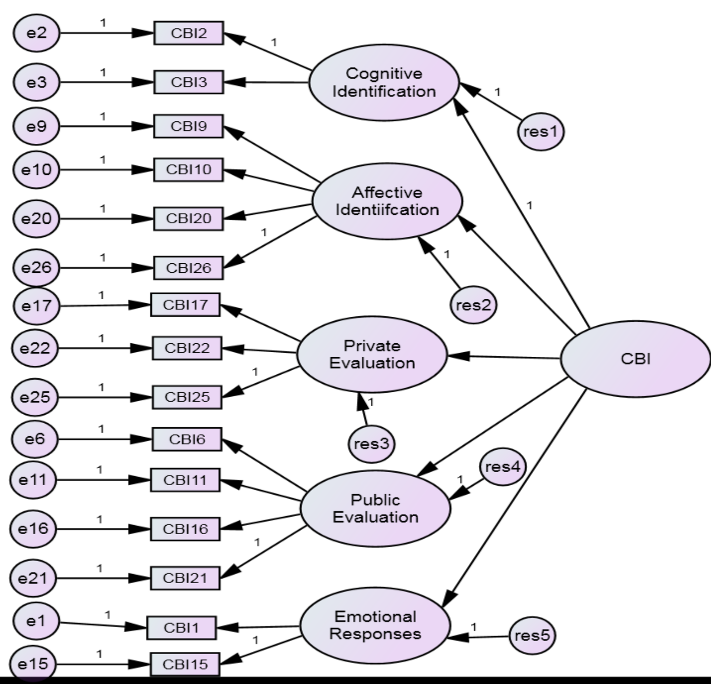

Figure 7.21 Consumer-Brand Identification Second Order Factor Model (Initial Validation Study)

7.5.5.2. Convergent Validity

Once again, three criteria were used in evaluating the scale's convergent validity. As Table 7.33 shows, all factor loadings estimates were above .7, except one of the first order factors "Emotional Responses" was just below the desirable level (.695). The significance of the t-values associated with factor-to-item loadings ranged from 16.2 to 32.5 ($p<.000$), providing support of the scale's convergent validity. It is worth noting that the loadings of the first-order factors to the second order factor were all above .80, except emotional responses dimension, and the t-values were statistically significant. This indicates the existence of a strong relationship between first-order factors and the second order factor, exhibiting evidence of convergent validity of the proposed second-order factor model. It is obvious that CBI (second-order factor) contributes the most to affective identification (standardised loading= .943, t-value= 20.1) and the least to emotional responses (standardised loading= .695, t-value= 16.24). CR and AVE were calculated for each dimension using Fornell and Larcker's (1981) formulas (see Section 7.4.4.4 for more details). As Table 7.34 displays, all composite reliabilities were above the recommended level of .7 (ranged from .832 to .929), providing evidence of convergent validity. The AVE estimates ranged from .714 to .765, exceeding the .50 rule of thumb, providing further support of the scale's convergent validity. Overall, the data supports the convergent validity of the second order factor model.

Variable	First-Order Factors: Cognitive Identification	Affective Identification	Private Identification	Public Identification	Emotional Responses	Second-Order Factor CBI
CBI2 This brand is central to my identity.	.863					
CBI3 My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity.	.852 (24.1)					
CBI9 I feel a personal connection to this brand.		.871 (31.0)				
CBI10 I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.		.884 (31.9)				
CBI20 I have a special bond with this brand.		.880 (31.6)				
CBI26 I feel emotionally attached to this brand.		.863				
CBI17 I am glad to be associated with this brand.			.869 (29.1)			
CBI22 It feels good to be associated with this brand.			.893 (30.4)			
CBI25 I feel happy to be associated with this brand.			.851			
CBI6 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.				.805 (27.4)		
CBI11 Associating with this brand gives me social approval.				.833 (29.2)		
CBI16 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.				.882 (32.5)		
CBI21 My association with this brand improves the way others view me.				.883		
CBI1 A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.					.750 (18.3)	
CBI15 If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.					.939	
Cognitive Identification						.813
Affective Identification						.943(20.1)
Private Evaluation						.873(18.7)
Public Evaluation						.885(19.5)
Emotional Responses						.695(16.24)

Table 7.33 Standardised Loadings (t-value) For Five First-Order Latent Factors and One Second-Order Latent Factor (Initial Validation Study)

	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5
Public Evaluation (1)	0.913	0.725	**0.851**				
Cognitive Identification (2)	0.847	0.735	0.716	**0.858**			
Affective Identification (3)	0.929	0.765	0.807	0.786	**0.875**		
Private Evaluation (4)	0.905	0.760	0.809	0.616	0.851	**0.872**	
Emotional Responses (5)	0.832	0.714	0.669	0.714	0.641	0.524	**0.845**

Table 7.34 Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliabilities (CR), Construct Correlations, and Square Root of AVE on the Diagonal (Initial Validation Study)

7.5.5.3. Discriminant Validity

The next step in the construct validation process was the assessment of discriminant validity. Given the high correlation between all CBI dimensions and the discriminant validity issues between cognitive and affective identification dimensions encountered in the first study, it is important to assess the discriminant validity of the CBI five dimensions using different ways. First, as Table 7.34 displays, all square root of average variance extracted (AVE) estimates (on the diagonal) exceeded the corresponding correlation estimates for each pair of dimensions, providing evidence of discriminant validity. Second, a series of chi-square difference tests was conducted by comparing a constrained model, where the correlation parameter between each pair of dimensions was fixed to one, to the unconstrained model (see Table 7.35). In every case, the chi square of the unconstrained model was significantly lower than the chi square of the constrained model, providing support for discriminant validity among all CBI dimensions. Finally, the confidence interval for the correlation between each pair of dimensions did not include the value of one, showing further evidence of discriminant validity (see Table 7.36).

Competing Model	X^2	df	ΔX^2	Δ df	P
Unconstrained Model: Cognitive /Affective identification	21.088	8			
Constrained Model: Cognitive/Affective identification	80.429	9	59.341	1	0.000
Unconstrained Model: Cognitive identification/Public Evaluation	21.432	8			
Constrained Model : Cognitive identification/ Public Evaluation	50.660	9	29.228	1	0.000
Unconstrained Model: Cognitive identification/Private Evaluation	8.464	4			
Constrained Model : Cognitive identification/Private Evaluation	13.514	5	5.05	1	0.024
Unconstrained Model: Cognitive identification/Emotional Responses	.562	1			
Constrained Model : Cognitive identification/Emotional Responses	25.241	2	24.679	1	0.000
Unconstrained Model: Affective identification/Public Evaluation	34.118	19			
Constrained Model : Affective identification/Public Evaluation	121.88	20	87.762	1	0.000
Unconstrained Model: Affective identification/Private Evaluation	71.552	13			
Constrained Model : Affective identification/Private Evaluation	148.22	14	76.668	1	0.000
Unconstrained Model: Public Evaluation/Private Evaluation	42.710	13			
Constrained Model : Public Evaluation/Private Evaluation	100.77	14	58.06	1	0.000
Unconstrained Model: Public Evaluation/Emotional Responses	12.848	8			
Constrained Model : Public Evaluation/Emotional Responses	47.376	9	34.528	1	0.000

Table 7.35 Chi-Square Different Tests on Consumer-Brand Identification Dimensions (Initial Validation Study)

Parameter			Estimate	Lower	Upper
Private Evaluation	<-->	Affective Identification	.851	.822	.874
Public Evaluation	<-->	Affective Identification	.807	.770	.840
Emotional Responses	<-->	Affective Identification	.641	.586	.691
Private Evaluation	<-->	Public Evaluation	.809	.777	.836
Private Evaluation	<-->	Emotional Responses	.524	.470	.577
Public Evaluation	<-->	Emotional Responses	.669	.612	.720
Affective Identification	<-->	Cognitive Identification	.786	.750	.821
Private Evaluation	<-->	Cognitive Identification	.616	.567	.664
Public Evaluation	<-->	Cognitive Identification	.716	.662	.760
Emotional Responses	<-->	Cognitive Identification	.714	.652	.768

Table 7.36 Confidence Intervals for Correlation between each Pair of Dimensions (Initial Validation Study)

7.5.6. Additional Discriminant, Convergent, and Predictive Validity Tests

The discriminant validity of the CBI scale was further assessed, showing that it is empirically distinguishable from similarly related constructs such as involvement, brand trust, brand loyalty, satisfaction, brand commitment, brand attitude, and actual/ideal self-image congruence. All the measures were found to be highly reliable and valid where composite reliability exceeded the recommended value of .7 and AVE were above the generally acceptable cut-off point of .5 (see Table 7.37). Discriminant validity was evaluated in two different ways. First, Fornell and Larcker (1981) test was utilised to evaluate the discriminant validity of CBI versus other related constructs. Discriminant validity is achieved if the square root of AVE of each construct (on the diagonal) exceeds the correlation between both constructs. It was found that all AVE estimates exceed the corresponding correlation estimates for each pair of construct, providing evidence of discriminant validity (see Table 7.37).

	CR	AVE	CBI	Involvement
CBI	0.926	0.715	0.845	
Involvement	0.958	0.793	0.421	0.890
			CBI	Brand Trust
CBI	0.924	0.712	0.843	
Brand Trust	0.767	0.525	0.681	0.725
			CBI	Brand Loyalty
CBI	0.923	0.709	0.842	
Brand Loyalty	0.871	0.694	0.799	0.833
			CBI	Satisfaction
CBI	0.932	0.733	0.856	
Satisfaction	0.808	0.680	0.727	0.824
			CBI	Brand Commitment
CBI	0.922	0.705	0.839	
Brand commitment	0.884	0.792	0.887	0.890

			CBI	Brand Attitude
CBI	0.924	0.710	0.842	
Brand Attitude	0.960	0.890	0.608	0.943
			CBI	Actual Self-congruence
CBI	0.926	0.717	0.846	
Actual Self-congruence	0.898	0.815	0.780	0.902
			CBI	Ideal Self-congruence
CBI	0.925	0.715	0.846	
Ideal Self-congruence	0.933	0.874	0.782	0.935

Table 7.37 Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliabilities (CR), Construct Correlations, and Square Root of AVE on the Diagonal of CBI and Similar Constructs (Initial Validation Study)

Second, to confirm that CBI and other constructs are distinct, two models were conducted, one in which the two constructs were freely estimated and one in which the two constructs were forced to be perfectly correlated. Discriminant validity exists if the chi-square for the unconstrained model is significantly lower than the constrained model. As Table 7.38 reports, the results verified that CBI is empirically distinct from other brand scales. Overall, both tests further attest to the discriminant validity of the CBI scale from similar brand scales.

Competing Model	**X^2**	**df**	**ΔX^2**	**Δ df**	**P**
Unconstrained Model: CBI/Involvement	556.894	183			
Constrained Model : CBI/ Involvement	572.127	184	15.233	1	0.000
Unconstrained Model: CBI/ Brand Trust	520.379	129			
Constrained Model : CBI/ Brand Trust	543.837	130	23.458	1	0.000
Unconstrained Model: CBI/Brand Loyalty	570.738	129			
Constrained Model : CBI/ Brand Loyalty	578.425	130	7.687	1	0.005
Unconstrained Model: CBI/ Satisfaction	526.3	113			
Constrained Model : CBI/ Satisfaction	537.9	114	11.6	1	0.000
Unconstrained Model: CBI/Brand Commitment	515.625	113			
Constrained Model : CBI/ Brand Commitment	564.707	114	49.082	1	0.000

Unconstrained Model: CBI/ Brand Attitude	559.998	129			
Constrained Model : CBI/Brand Attitude	565.330	130	5.332	1	0.02
Unconstrained Model: CBI/Actual Self-Congruence	419.785	113			
Constrained Model : CBI/Actual Self-Congruence	431.945	114	12.16	1	0.000
Unconstrained Model: CBI/Ideal Self-Congruence	432.728	113			
Constrained Model : CBI/Ideal Self-Congruence	452.128	114	19.4	1	0.000

Table 7.38 Chi-Square Different Tests on CBI and Similar Constructs (Initial Validation Study)

Further assessment of convergent validity was conducted by correlating the newly proposed CBI measure with other established scales used to measure consumer identification in the marketing literature. Specifically, the 15-item second-order CBI construct was correlated with Mael and Ashforth (1992) unidimensional six-item scale (CR= 0.918, AVE= 0.693) and Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) verbal and visual two-item scale (CR= 0.864, AVE= 0.761). Both unidimensional instruments are widely used in the marketing literature to measure consumer identification. More details are discussed in Chapter Three. Whereas Mael and Ashforth (1992) scale was developed to measure overall organisational identification, Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) scale was developed to measure only cognitive identification. However, both instruments seem satisfactory for exhibiting convergent validity of the newly developed scale (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Einwiller et al., 2006). CFA was used to investigate the convergent validity of the CBI measure. A series of CFA models was conducted by correlating two different measures at a time. As Table 7.39 displays, the results revealed that the three measures converge at very high levels for both product categories (i.e. athletic shoes and beer). This indicates that the three instruments capture the same construct, thus providing evidence of the convergent validity of the CBI scale. Bergami and Bagozzi

(2000) found that their cognitive identification measure correlates highly with Mael and Ashforth (1992) measure (*r*= 0.82).

	Correlation (r)		
	Overall Sample	**Athletic Shoes**	**Beer**
Newly developed CBI Scale/ M&A (1992) six-item scale	.912	.901	.920
Newly developed CBI Scale/ B&B (2000) two-item scale	.938	.948	.922
M&A (1992) six-item scale/ B&B (200) two-item scale	.854	.859	.845

Table 7.39 Correlation between CBI Scale, M&A (1992) and B&B (2000) Scales (Initial Validation Study)

Given the high correlation between the different measures, it may be important to assess the predictive validity of each instrument to show that the proposed second-order CBI construct has more predictive power compared to Mael and Ashforth (1992) organisational identification measure and Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) cognitive identification measure (see Figures 7.22- 7.24). To assess the predictive validity of the three measures, a measure of brand loyalty was employed as the criterion variable. Brand loyalty is likely to be predicted by the extent to which consumers' identify with a particular brand (Pérez et al., 2013; Stokburger-Sauer et al et al., 2012). Predictive validity is shown by a significant correlation between the two latent constructs. The findings showed that the newly proposed CBI measure better predicts brand loyalty (y = .80, p <.001) than both Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) cognitive identification measure (y = .68, p <.001) and Mael and Ashforth (1992) organisational identification measure (y = .61, p <.001). Moreover, the second order CBI construct was found to explain .64 of the variance in brand loyalty, while Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) explained about .46 and finally Mael and Ashforth (1992) explained .37. These results provided further evidence of the scale's predicative validity.

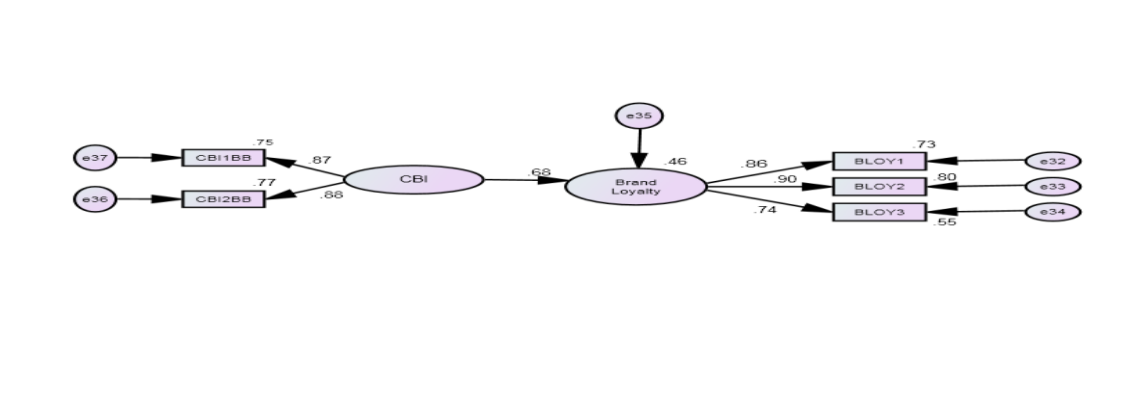

Figure 7.22 Predictive Valdity–B&B (2000) Cognitive Identification and Brand Loyalty (Initial Validation Study)

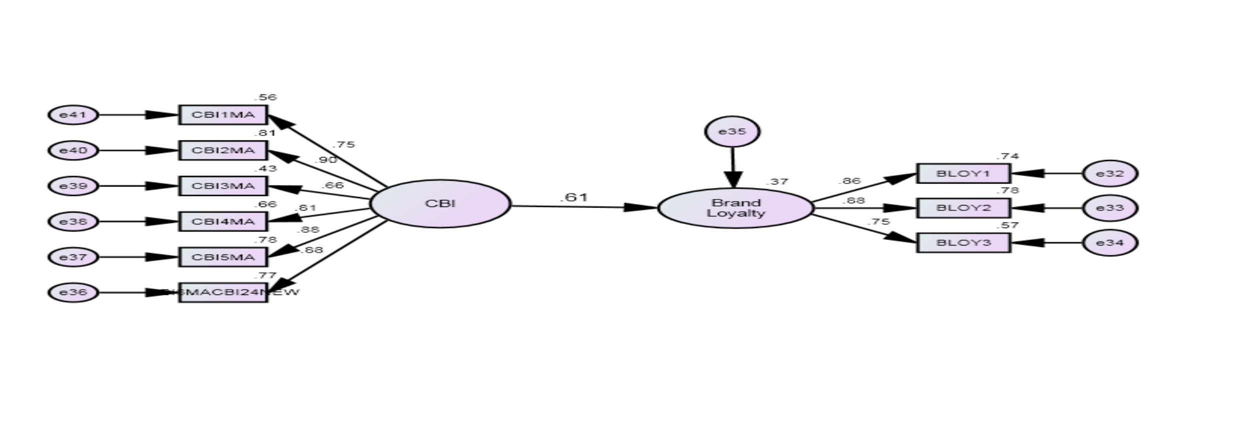

Figure 7.23 Predictive Valdity–M&A (1992) Organisatonal Identification and Brand Loyalty (Initial Validation Study)

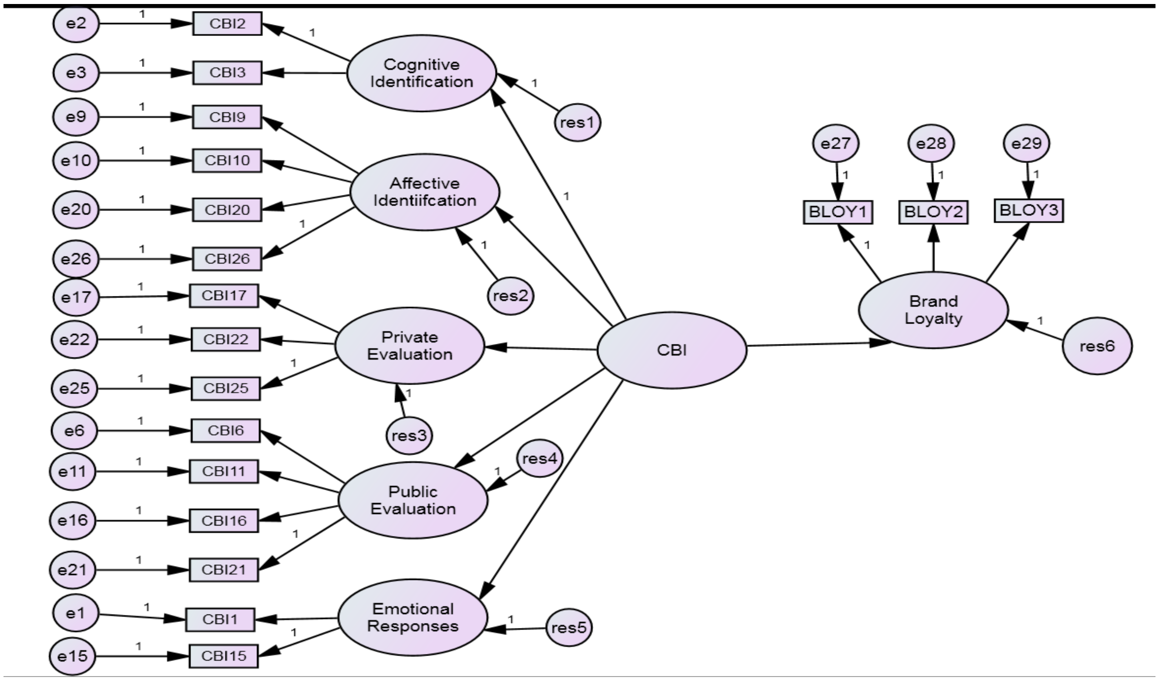

Figure 7.24 Predictive Validity-Second Order CBI Construct and Brand Loyalty (Initial Validation Study)

7.5.7. Common Method Bias

Once again, to rule out the potential influence of common method bias, Williams et al. (2010) comprehensive CFA marker technique was applied. Similar to the first study, a three-item fantasy construct (Malhotra et al., 2006) was selected as the marker variable. As previously stated, this marker variable is theoretically unrelated to dimensions of CBI. A set of CFA models were estimated and compared to test for the presence and equality of method variance associated with the marker variable (see Section 7.4.5 for more details). The model fit results for each model are presented in Table 7.40. Using the unstandardised factor and error loadings from the CFA model, the baseline model had good fit (X^2 (127) = 275.729 and CFI= 0.984). By comparing the X^2 of the Baseline model to Method-C model, it was found that the method variance is not a problem ($p= 0.057$) as there was no significant difference between both models. As the difference was very small .007 (see Table 7.40), Method–C model and Method-U model were compared. The comparison showed no significant difference between both models indicating that the method marker variable influences all factor loadings equally. Based on these results, Method-C model is considered the best model for accounting for marker variance on substantive indicators. As Table 7.41 displays, the standardised factor loadings for Method-C model ranged from .766 to .913 and all substantive indicators loaded significantly ($p<0.001$) on the constructs they are intended to measure. In terms of the method factor loadings, values ranged from .061 to .071 and all items were statistically not significant with $p= .054$. This shows that the method marker variable did not significantly bias the factor loadings estimates. Finally, the comparison between Method-C model and Method-R model showed that the effects of the marker variable did not significantly bias the correlation estimates between CBI dimensions. This means there is no significant difference between the factor correlations in both the baseline model and Method-C model (see Table 7.42).

	Model Fit				Chi Square Model Comparison Tests				Conclusion
Model	**X^2**	**df**	**P**	**CFI**	**Δ Models**	**Δ X^2**	**Δ df**	**P**	
CFA Model	270.061	120	0.000	0.983					
Baseline Model	275.729	127	0.000	0.984					
Method-C Model	272.133	126	0.000	0.984	**Baseline vs. Method-C**	3.596	1	0.057	This comparison provides a test of the presence of method variance associated with the marker variable. A chi square difference of 3.596 with one degree of freedom is just lower than chi square critical value of 0.05 for one degree of freedom of 3.84. Thus, it is considered that the method variance is not a problem.
Method- U Model	249.220	112	0.000	0.985	**Method-C vs. Method-U**	22.913	14	0.062 (NS)	This comparison determines if the impact of the marker variable is equal on all factor loadings. The chi square was not significant, thus providing support that the method marker variable influences all factor loadings equally. Therefore, Method-C model represents the best model for accounting for marker variance on substantive indicators.
Method-R Model	272.156	136	0.000	0.985	**Method C vs. Method R**	0.023	10	1.0 (NS)	This comparison determines whether the correlations were significantly biased by the marker variable method effects. The chi square test resulted in nonsignificant difference of .023 at ten degrees of freedom. Thus, there is no significant difference between the factor correlations in both the baseline model and method C model.

Table 7.40 Common Method Bias-Goodness of Fit values and Model Comparison Tests (Initial Validation Study)

tem	1	2	3	4	5	Marker Variable	t-value	P
CBI2 This brand is central to my identity.	.857*					.066†	1.928	.054
CBI3 My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity.	.854*					.064†	1.928	.054
CBI9 I feel a personal connection to this brand.		.870*				.061†	1.928	.054
CBI10 I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.		.882*				.063†	1.928	.054
CBI20 I have a special bond with this brand.		.879*				.061†	1.928	.054
CBI26 I feel emotionally attached to this brand.		.859*				.060†	1.928	.054
CBI17 I am glad to be associated with this brand.			.864*			.071†	1.928	.054
CBI22 It feels good to be associated with this brand.			.892*			.068†	1.928	.054
CBI25 I feel happy to be associated with this brand.			.850*			.066†	1.928	.054
CBI6 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.				.802*		.066†	1.928	.054
CBI11 Associating with this brand gives me social approval.				.831*		.065†	1.928	.054
CBI16 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.				.879*		.065†	1.928	.054
CBI21 My association with this brand improves the way others view me.				.879*		.063†	1.928	.054
CBI1 A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.					.766*	.066†	1.928	.054
CBI15 If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.					.913*	.065†	1.928	.054
FANTAZY1						.734		
FANTAZY2						.520		
FANTAZY3						.567		

*p<0.001, †- not significant at p<0.05

Table 7.41 Common Method Bias-Method-C Model Standardised Factor Loadings (Initial Validation Study)

			Estimates	
			Baseline Model	**Method-C Model**
Cognitive Identification	<-->	Affective Identification	.785	.786
Cognitive Identification	<-->	Private Evaluation	.615	.616
Cognitive Identification	<-->	Public Evaluation	.714	.716
Cognitive Identification	<-->	Emotional Responses	.712	.714
Affective Identification	<-->	Private Evaluation	.850	.851
Affective Identification	<-->	Public Evaluation	.806	.807
Affective Identification	<-->	Emotional Responses	.640	.641
Private Evaluation	<-->	Public Evaluation	.807	.809
Private Evaluation	<-->	Emotional Responses	.522	.524
Public Evaluation	<-->	Emotional Responses	.666	.669

Table 7.42 Common Method Bias-Baseline Model and Method-C Model Factor Correlations (Initial Validation Study)

7.5.8. Measurement Invariance

Although evidence was provided that supports the internal consistency of the CBI scale and its validity (i.e. convergent, discriminant, and predictive), it is also important to confirm the instrument's robustness. The scale is considered robust if the observed variables and their underlying constructs are invariant or equivalent across two or more independent groups (Delgado-Ballester, 2004). According to Horn (1991: 119), "without evidence of measurement invariance, the conclusions of a study must be weak". The multi-group CFA model was employed as it is considered the most frequently (Chen et al., 2005), powerful and versatile (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) approach to testing cross-groups measurement invariance. In line with Hair et al. (2010) recommendations with respect to measurement models, measurement invariance across product categories (i.e. athletic shoes and beer) at both the configural and the metric levels was tested to assess if CBI second-order construct is conceptualised in the same way and its items have the same meaning across products.

A hierarchal series of nested models were examined to assess the statistical equivalence of the CBI second order construct across the two product categories. The configural invariance model was estimated (i.e. the baseline model against all subsequent invariance models are compared) at the beginning. Configural invariance exists if the specified model fits the data well in all groups, all standardised loadings to other postulated dimensions are significant, and discriminant validity is supported between the construct's dimensions (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Overall, the fit of the configural invariance model was reasonable (see Table 7.43). Although X^2 was significant, the CFI and TLI were above the stringent cut-off point of Hu and Bentler (1999), RMSEA and SRMR were below the recommend .8 and .5 levels respectively. Discriminant validity was found between the five dimensions comprising the construct under investigation (see Table 7.44) and all factor loadings were highly significant in both product categories (see Table 7.45). Thus, it can be concluded that the CBI scale exhibited configural invariance across both athletic shoes and beer product categories.

Next, the metric invariance of the first-order factor loadings was tested by constraining all of the first-order factor loadings to be invariant across product categories (Chen et al., 2005). As Table 7.43 displays, there was no significant difference in chi-square between the configural model (Model 1) and the metric invariance model (Model 2) and the fit also increased in terms of alternative fit indices such as SRMR and TLI. These results revealed that the first-order factor loadings were equivalent across both product categories. Finally, the metric invariance of the second-order factor loadings was tested by constraining all of the first-order and second-order factor loadings to be equivalent across product categories. The chi-square difference test was found to be nonsignificant and alternative fit indices were improved, indicating that second-order factor loadings were invariant across both product categories. Hence, it can be concluded that full metric invariance is supported.

	Model Fit							Model Comparisons			
Model	**X^2**	**df**	**P**	**RMSEA**	**SRMR**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**Model Comparison**	**Δ X^2**	**Δ df**	**P**
Separate Groups											
Athletic shoes	213.8	85	.000	.064	.040	.976	.970				
Beer	240.3	85	.000	.075	.044	.958	948				
Model 1: Configural invariance (no equality constraints imposed)	454.1	170	.000	.049	.040	.968	.961				
Model 2: Metric invariance for first order factor loadings	470.9	180	.000	.048	.042	.968	.962	2 vs.1	16.8	10	.07†
Model 3: Metric invariance for both first and second order factor loadings	476.9	184	.000	.048	.045	.967	.963	3 vs.2	6.0	4	.20†

†- not significant at p<0.05

Table 7.43 Measurement Invariance Tests for Athletic Shoes and Beer Products (Initial Validation Study)

Athletic Shoes							
	CR	**AVE**	**(1)**	**(2)**	**(3)**	**(4)**	**(5)**
Public Evaluation (1)	0.925	0.756	**0.869**				
Cognitive Identification (2)	0.887	0.797	0.742	**0.893**			
Affective Identification (3)	0.945	0.811	0.868	0.822	**0.901**		
Private Evaluation (4)	0.909	0.770	0.837	0.644	0.874	**0.877**	
Emotional Responses (5)	0.833	0.717	0.697	0.715	0.671	0.521	**0.847**
Beer							
Public Evaluation (1)	0.900	0.694	**0.833**				
Cognitive Identification (2)	0.793	0.657	0.676	**0.811**			
Affective Identification (3)	0.909	0.715	0.728	0.748	**0.845**		
Private Evaluation (4)	0.899	0.748	0.776	0.589	0.821	**0.865**	
Emotional Responses (5)	0.833	0.715	0.630	0.709	0.608	0.534	**0.845**

Table 7.44 Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliabilities (CR), Construct Correlations, and Square Root of AVE on the Diagonal for both Product Categories (Initial Validation Study)

First-Oder Factors	Athletic Shoes		Beer	
	Standardised Loadings	t-value	Standardised Loadings	t-value
Cognitive Identification				
CBI2 This brand is central to my identity.	.885	21.517	.836	13.177
CBI3 My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity.	.900		.786	
Affective Identification				
CBI9 I feel a personal connection to this brand.	.879	25.524	.863	18.659
CBI10 I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.	.908	27.618	.856	18.453
CBI20 I have a special bond with this brand.	.915	28.202	.842	17.983
CBI26 I feel emotionally attached to this brand.	.900		.820	
Private Evaluation				
CBI17 I am glad to be associated with this brand.	.864	21.598	.875	19.534
CBI22 It feels good to be associated with this brand.	.907	23.454	.879	19.634
CBI25 I feel happy to be associated with this brand.	.860		.840	
Public Evaluation				
CBI6 My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.	.855	23.139	.744	16.130
CBI11 Associating with this brand gives me social approval.	.844	22.542	.825	19.095
CBI16 I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.	.884	24.827	.882	21.444
CBI21 My association with this brand improves the way others view me.	.893		.874	
Emotional Responses				
CBI1 A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.	.705	12.494	.809	13.217
CBI15 If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.	.987		.881	
Second Order factors				
Cognitive Identification	.829		.794	
Affective Identification	.973	16.987	.907	11.834
Private Evaluation	.880	14.862	.867	11.686
Public Evaluation	.909	15.918	.847	11.823
Emotional Responses	.685	12.953	.700	9.944

Table 7.45 Measurement Invariance- Standardised Factor Loadings and t-values across Product Categories (Initial Validation Study)

7.6 Summary

This chapter presented the empirical results of the first two phases in the scale development process. It initially discussed the two stages of expert item judging which aimed at assessing the content validity of the initial item pool. Based upon this content validity assessment, a decision was made to reduce the number of items from 97 to 50. Following this, a series of analyses were performed on two independent consumer samples across a number of product categories and brands to develop and validate the CBI scale. First, EFA was performed on the first sample of consumers to initially purify the measure and identify the underlying latent factors for the construct. This resulted in the deletion of 18 items and the emergence of five factors. Following this, CFA was employed to further refine the scale and reconfirm the factor structure suggested by EFA. As demonstrated by the empirical results, this resulted in five-factor model consisting of 21 items with satisfactory model fit. Further, the results supported the convergent and discriminant validity of the CBI newly proposed scale.

To test the stability of the scale, a new sample of respondents and product categories was employed to further reduce the number of items and confirm the dimensionality structure of the CBI scale. Using a series of EFA and CFA, these analyses ended with a five-factor model consisting of 15 items. Compared to a five-factor model, the findings indicated that a second- order factor model appeared to be the most prudent choice. Additional evidence of the convergent validity of the scale was exhibited by comparing the new scale to established scales measuring the same construct. The discriminant validity of the CBI construct from a number of similarly related constructs was empirically verified. Further, using a comprehensive CFA marker variable technique, the findings showed that the common method variance did not significantly bias the loadings estimates and the correlation estimates between the CBI dimensions. Finally, the results provided empirical support for the configural and the metric invariance of the CBI scale when it is applied in different types of products. Now Chapter Eight presents the empirical results of the third phase of the scale development process. Specifically, the following chapter analyses the relationship between the CBI construct, using the newly developed scale, and the potential antecedents and consequences to examine the nomological validity of the scale.

CHAPTER EIGHT
PHASE 3: FINAL VALIDATON OF THE SCALE

8.1 Introduction

The previous chapter ascertained that CBI is a second-order construct with five first order dimensions. These five dimensions were found to be reliable and exhibit strong levels of convergent and discriminant validity across different samples and product brands. This chapter focuses on the final phase in the scale development process. The first half of the chapter is devoted to providing further assessment of dimensionality, reliability, convergent and discriminant validity of the CBI construct using both exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Once the CBI construct has been assessed and found to reliable and valid, the subsequent parts of the chapter present the measurement model assessment and the structural model assessment following Anderson and Gerbing (1988) two-step approach. Specifically, confirmatory factor analysis is employed to test the measurement model before testing the hypothesised relationships between latent constructs depicted in the structural model. Figure 8.1 shows how the chapter is structured.

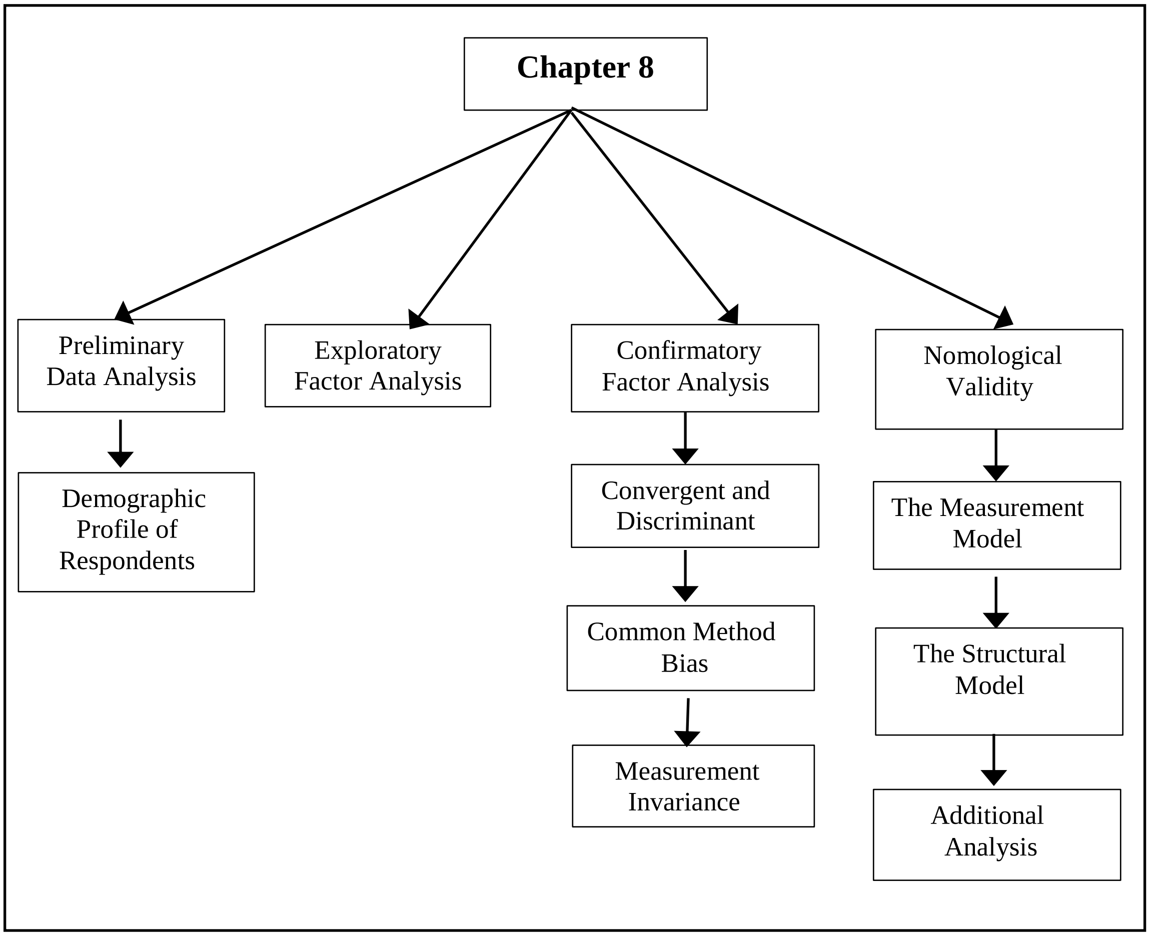

Figure 8.1 Structure of Chapter Eight

8.2 Preliminary Data Analysis

8.2.1 Data Cleaning

A total number of 5000 questionnaires were distributed to houses at Hull and Beverley areas between March and May 2014 (Section 6.9.1.4 shows how these houses were selected). A total of 531 questionnaires were returned (18 March 2014 to 17 June 2014), indicating an average response rate of 11%. Of these 531 questionnaires, 53 questionnaires were returned blank, leaving 478 questionnaires. To ensure that respondents were responding to the questionnaire with due care, three statements with a seven point Likert scale anchored 1=Strongly Disagree and 7=Strongly Agree were included: “Please select “Strongly Disagree” as a response to this question”, “Please select “Strongly Agree” as a response to this question”, and “I have tried to answer all of the questions honestly and accurately” (See Appendix C2 for the location of these quality check questions). Any respondent who selected an inappropriate response to the first two questions was excluded from the data set. Regarding the latter question, any respondent who selected less than 5(i.e. 1, 2, 3, or 4) on the Likert scale was excluded from the data set. At the conclusion of this process, a total of 102 respondents were excluded from the data set. Additionally, in keeping with the practise adopted in earlier rounds, eight respondents were excluded because they had not been living in the UK for over ten years. The research focused only on British citizens who have been living in the UK for over ten years. Finally, an inspection of the descriptive statistics revealed that 32 respondents failed to specify the service provider or the brand they regularly deal with/use, and therefore excluded from the data set. At the conclusion of this cleaning process, 336 questionnaires were available for further data screening procedures.

8.2.2 Missing Value Analysis

The missing value analysis revealed that all items except B&B1 had fewer than 7% missing values, thus not regarded as a critical issue given this low percentage (Hair et al., 2010). Specifically, B&B1 item had missing values of 31.3%, resulting in the deletion of this item. Cognitive brand identification was thus measured using only one item. It is worth noting that several previous studies used a single item of Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) scale to operationalise cognitive brand identification (e.g. Bagozzi

& Dholakia, 2006; Stokburger-Sauer, 2010). Moreover, it was found that 333 cases (approximately 99%) had missing values less than 8%. Only three cases (174, 165, and 161) had missing values of 13.7%, 19.6%, and 29.4% respectively. Consequently, prior to the analysis of missing values, these three cases were excluded as they did not provide responses to more than 10% of the questions (Hair et al., 2010). Please see Appendix D2 for missing values classified by items and cases. Little's MCAR test revealed that the data was missing completely at random (MCAR) given that the p value is .974 (i.e. nonsignificant difference), implying that missing values was not considered a severe issue. Expectation maximisation (EM) was then conducted to estimate and replace all missing values. Accordingly, once expectation EM has been utilised, all subsequent analysis was performed on a complete data set.

8.2.3 Non-Response Bias

As previously noted in Section 6.9.3.2, the distribution method conducted makes it difficult to objectively distinguish between early and late respondents. Specifically, one wave of mailing was performed and no follow-ups were conducted. However, given the presumed bias that arises from low response rate, non-response bias was estimated by splitting the completed sample randomly. Independent samples t-tests were thus conducted to all variables of interest to assess the non-response bias. As shown in Table 8.1, at 95% confidence level across all variables, the results revealed no significant differences between both random groups. Following Armstrong and Overton (1977), it can be concluded that the sample does not suffer from response bias.

Item	Mean of Group 1 (N= 155)	Mean of Group 2 (N=178)	Significance of t-value
The employees of [service provider] get my full cooperation	5.94	5.86	.552
I carefully observe the rules and policies of [service provider]	5.62	5.51	.519
I go out of my way to treat [service provider's] personnel with kindness and respect	6.03	5.97	.612
I do things that can make [service provider's] employee's job easier	5.47	5.43	.803
I make constructive suggestions to [service provider] on how to improve their service	3.74	3.70	.849
I let [service provider] knows of ways that can better serve my needs.	3.90	3.67	.212
If I have a useful idea on how to improve service, I give it to someone at [service provider]	3.70	3.47	.233
When I experience a problem at [service provider], I let an employee know.	5.62	5.73	.448
If I notice a problem at [service provider], I inform an employee even if it does not affect me	4.67	4.42	.207
How likely are you to help others when they do not know how to use this service	5.01	5.03	.913
How likely are you to teach someone how to use the service correctly	4.53	4.69	.428
How likely are you to explain to other customers how to use the service correctly	4.35	4.52	.383
Visual diagram	2.52	2.53	.951
The selected service provider is central to my identity	2.07	2.11	.809
My sense of self overlaps with the [service provider's] identity	2.08	2.19	.483
Associating with [service provider] brand gives me social approval	2.52	2.52	.967
My association with [service provider]brand improves the way others view me	2.27	2.24	.851
My association with [service provider] brand improves the way I am perceived by others	2.11	2.20	.561
I believe others respect me for my association with [service provider] brand.	2.07	2.08	.929
I have a strong sense of closeness to [service provider] brand.	2.59	2.69	.612
I feel emotionally attached to service provider	2.41	2.38	.864
I have a special bond with service provider brand	2.58	2.47	.564
I feel a personal connection to service provider	2.66	2,55	.568
It feels good to be associated with service provider	3.05	3.09	.816
I feel happy to be associated with service provider brand	3.83	3.81	.926
I am glad to be associated with service provider brand	3.39	3.51	.539
A negative report in the media about service provider would make me feel ashamed	2.58	2.47	.551
If a story in the media criticised service provider, I would feel embarrassed	2.48	2.23	.151
Service provider's salespeople try to figure out what a customer's needs are	5.19	4.97	.174
Service provider's salespeople have the customer's best interest in mind	4.95	4.73	.221
Service provider's salespeople take a problem solving approach in selling products or services to customers	4.72	4.56	.356
Service provider's salespeople recommend products or services that are best suited to solving the customer's problems	4.85	4.74	.495
Salespeople of service provider try to find out which kinds of products or services would be most helpful to customers	4.63	4.57	.742
Service provider rewards regular customers for their patronage	4.54	4.40	.569
Service provider offers discounts to regular customers for their patronage	4.23	4.07	.512
Service provider offers special financial benefits and incentives to regular customers for their patronage	4.22	3.88	.155
Service provider makes more efforts for regular customers than for nonregular customers	3.45	3.28	.392
Service provider offers special treatments to regular customers than to nonregular customers	3.43	3.25	.393
Service provider offers better service to regular customers than to nonregular customers.	2.92	2.74	.321
Service provider does more for regular customers than for nonregular customers	3.14	2.93	.299

Table 8.1 Non-Response Bias Analysis (Final Validation Study)

8.2.4 Test of Outliers

Similar to the previous two studies, z-scores and boxplot were conducted to examine potential outliers. The findings showed that the majority of the cases were below ± 3.29 z-values ($p<0.001$), indicating the absence of significant outliers (Hair et al., 2010). Specifically, the findings identified four cases (302, 51, 148, 216) with -4.14 z-scores for items “The employees of [service provider] get my full cooperation” and “I go out of my way to treat [service provider's] personnel with kindness and respect”. Following Hair et al. (2010) guidelines, these outliers were noted and retained for further detection of outliers using box plots. A further number of outliers were identified using boxplots as shown in Table 8.2. Overall, outliers detected were retained as they did not seem to be unique and unrepresentative to the population i.e. it is normal to find respondents who extremely agree or disagree with these items.

Item	Case Number
The employees of [service provider] get my full cooperation	302
I carefully observe the rules and policies of [service provider]	20, 216, 265, 311
I go out of my way to treat [service provider's] personnel with kindness and respect	13, 51, 98, 120, 141, 148, 151, 216, 246, 276, 311, 328
I do things that can make [service provider's] employee's job easier	216, 259, 302, 328
The selected service provider is central to my identity	223, 225, 295, 297
My sense of self overlaps with the [service provider's] identity	223, 297
My association with [service provider] brand improves the way I am perceived by others	223

Table 8.2 Assessment of Outliers Using Boxplots (Final Validation Study)

8.2.5 Test of Normality

Normality was initially examined via skewness and kurtosis (Stevens, 1992). The results revealed that the skewness positive values ranged from .002 to 1.545 and the negative values ranged from - .001 to - .1.492. Negative kurtosis values ranged from -.011 to -.1.457 and positive kurtosis values ranged from .032 to 2.620. Overall, having skewness and kurtosis values below 2 and 7 respectively shows that the distribution of data is more or less normally distributed (Curran et al., 1996). Next, the normality assumption was assessed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) tests. The results showed that all the items for both tests of normality were significant (p=0.000), indicating deviation from normality (see Table 8.3). As previously noted in Sections 7.4.1.3 and 7.5.1.3, with large sample size significant results can be easily obtained with small deviations from normality (more details can be found in Section 7.4.1.3).

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
Items	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig**	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig**
COOP1	.246	289	.000	.826	289	.000
COOP2	.253	289	.000	.845	289	.000
COOP3	.248	289	.000	.780	289	.000
COOP4	.232	289	.000	.879	289	.000
PART1	.143	289	.000	.931	289	.000
PART2	.170	289	.000	.935	289	.000
PART3	.166	289	.000	.926	289	.000
PART4	.264	289	.000	.836	289	.000
PART5	.160	289	.000	.921	289	.000
HELPCUST1	.176	289	.000	.885	289	.000
HELPCUST2	.162	289	.000	.910	289	.000
HELPCUST3	.157	289	.000	.913	289	.000
BB2	.226	289	.000	.854	289	.000
COG1	.313	289	.000	.740	289	.000
COG2	.289	289	.000	.773	289	.000
PUBEVAL1	.208	289	.000	.861	289	.000
PUBEVAL2	.252	289	.000	.814	289	.000
PUBEVAL3	.255	289	.000	.796	289	.000
PUBEVAL4	.277	289	.000	.781	289	.000
EMOT1	.218	289	.000	.864	289	.000

EMOT2	.240	289	.000	.816	289	.000
EMOT3	.228	289	.000	.832	289	.000
EMOT4	.218	289	.000	.849	289	.000
PRVEVAL1	.179	289	.000	.907	289	.000
PRVEVAL2	.155	289	.000	.927	289	.000
PRVEVAL3	.156	289	.000	.918	289	.000
EMOTRES1	.232	289	.000	.837	289	.000
EMOTRES2	.253	289	.000	.800	289	.000
FUNORT1	.204	289	.000	.906	289	.000
FUNORT2	.190	289	.000	.915	289	.000
FUNORT3	.159	289	.000	.922	289	.000
FUNORT4	.171	289	.000	.924	289	.000
FUNORT5	.160	289	.000	.931	289	.000
ECONPREF1	.171	289	.000	.881	289	.000
ECONPREF2	.165	289	.000	.882	289	.000
ECONPREF3	.173	289	.000	.884	289	.000
ECONPREF4	.165	289	.000	.882	289	.000
CUSPREF1	.169	289	.000	.910	289	.000
CUSPREF2	.169	289	.000	.910	289	.000
CUSPREF3	.231	289	.000	.883	289	.000
CUSPREF4	.214	289	.000	.890	289	.000

Table 8.3 Assessment of Normality Using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk (Final Validation Study)

8.3 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Overall, the sample was 63% female with 17% respondents aged less than 35 years, 34% respondents aged between 36 and 55 years, and 49% of respondents aged over 55 years. In contrast to the first two studies, the distribution of age of respondents revealed that the biggest segment of respondents aged above 55 years followed by respondents aged between 36 and 55 years. Respondents are well educated- 31% completed their undergraduate degree, and about 25% have a postgraduate degree. The income level of respondents varied where the biggest two segments has an annual income between £10,000-£20,000 (24%) and more than £50,000 (21%). The demographic profile of each group is reported in Table 8.4.

8.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis

The data set was subjected to a series of Exploratory Factor analysis (EFA). All necessary conditions for performing EFA were fulfilled. With 15 items and a sample size of 333, the data set was considered appropriate for EFA. Moreover, the significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (X^2 (120) = 5088.974, p = 0.000) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy of .925 indicated the suitability of the data set for EFA. In this study, principal component analysis was used as the extraction method and an oblique rotation was selected as the rotation method. Principal component analysis was considered the most appropriate extraction method considering that the number of underlying dimensions of the CBI construct was ascertained in the previous studies and that the primary objective of this study is further reduction of poor performing items. The EFA was performed with a forced number of factors (i.e. five factors) as determined by the previous studies. Items with loadings less than .7 were dropped, items with loadings on multiple factors were excluded, and items with communalities less than0.5 were also removed. This resulted in the deletion of four items with cross loadings over .30. The result was a five-factor solution with 11 items (see Table 8.5), accounting for 89.1% of the total variance with no loadings less than .70 (only an affective identification item was .698), no cross loadings >.30, all communalities >.80. All factors consisted of two items except the affective identification factor included three items.

			Group 1 (183)										**Group 2 (150)**									
	Total Sample (333)		**Airlines (20)**		**Cafeteria (28)**		**Grocery Stores (103)**		**Fast food Chain (15)**		**Hotels (17)**		**Banks (125)**		**Insurance (3)**		**Travel Agents (5)**		**Hair Dresser (10)**		**Pubs & Restaurant (7)**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Gender																						
Male	116	34.8	10	50	8	28.6	35	34	4	26.7	6	35.3	47	37.6	3	100	2	40	0	0	1	14.3
Female	209	62.8	9	45	20	71.4	67	65	10	66.7	11	64.7	73	58.4	0	0	3	60	10	100	6	85.7
Missing	8	2.4	1	5	0	0	1	1	1	6.6	0	0	5	4	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
Age Category																						
18-25	20	6.0	0	0	6	21.4	4	3.9	2	13.3	0	0	5	4	1	33.3	0	0	0	0	2	28.6
26-35	35	10.5	2	10	3	10.7	11	10.7	2	13.3	1	5.9	15	12	0	0	0	0	1	10	0	0
36-45	43	12.9	3	15	3	10.7	17	16.5	3	20	0	0	15	12	0	0	0	0	1	10	1	14.3
46-55	71	21.3	2	10	7	25	23	22.3	2	13.3	2	11.8	28	22.4	2	66.7	2	40	2	20	1	14.3
56-65	85	25.5	7	35	7	25	24	23.3	5	33.4	10	58.8	29	23.2	0	0	2	40	1	10	0	0
65 or more	78	23.4	6	30	2	7.2	24	23.3	1	6.7	4	23.5	32	25.6	0	0	1	20	5	50	3	42.8
Missing	1	0.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Annual Income																						
£10,000 or less	14	4.2	0	0	0	0	6	5.8	1	6.7	0	0	4	3.2	0	0	0	0	1	10	2	28.6
£10,001-£20,000	79	23.7	2	10	7	25	23	22.3	5	33.4	3	17.6	30	24	3	100	1	20	3	30	2	28.6
£20,001-£30,000	58	17.4	5	25	5	17.8	16	15.5	2	13.3	4	23.5	23	18.4	0	0	0	0	1	10	2	28.6
£30,001-£40,000	50	15.0	2	10	3	10.7	16	15.5	2	13.3	1	5.9	22	17.6	0	0	1	20	2	20	1	14.2
£40,001-£50,000	44	13.2	4	20	4	14.3	16	15.5	3	20	0	0	16	12.8	0	0	0	0	1	10	0	0
More than £50,00	70	21.0	6	30	8	28.6	19	18.5	2	13.3	7	41.2	23	18.4	0	0	3	60	2	20	0	0
Missing	18	5.4	1	5	1	3.6	7	6.9	0	0	2	11.8	7	5.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Level of Education																						
GCSE	76	22.8	3	15	2	7.2	28	27.2	3	20	5	29.4	31	24.8	2	66.7	0	0	0	0	2	28.6
A/L	50	15.0	5	25	7	25	12	11.6	2	13.3	2	11.8	17	13.6	0	0	2	40	2	20	1	14.3
Undergraduate degree	103	30.9	7	35	9	32.1	31	30.1	6	40	6	35.3	37	29.6	1	33.3	1	20	4	40	1	14.3
Postgraduate degree	83	24.9	5	25	10	35.7	21	20.4	4	26.7	4	23.5	32	25.6	0	0	2	40	3	30	2	28.6
Missing	21	6.3	0	0	0	0	11	10.7	0	0	0	0	8	6.4	0	0	0	0	1	10	1	14.2
Length of Living in UK																						
I was born in the UK	318	95.5	20	100	25	89.3	100	97.1	15	100	17	100	120	96	3	100	3	60	9	90	6	85.7
More than 10 years	15	4.5	0	0	3	10.7	3	2.9	0	0	0	0	5	4	0	0	2	40	1	10	1	14.3

Table 8.4 Sample Characteristics Classified by Service Categories (Final Validation Study)

	Factor Loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	Communalities
Cognitive Identification						
This brand is central to my identity.	.858					.901
My sense of self-overlaps with the brand's identity.	.931					.907
Affective Identification						
I feel emotionally attached to this brand.		.996				.888
I have a special bond with this brand.		.726				.870
I feel a personal connection to this brand.		.698				.837
Private Evaluation						
I feel happy to be associated with this brand.			.931			.911
I am glad to be associated with this brand.			.917			.915
Public Evaluation						
Associating with this brand gives me social approval.				.992		.916
My association with this brand improves the way others view me.				.733		.847
Emotional Responses						
A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.					.974	.914
If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.					.933	.906
Percentage of Variance	57.5%	11.5%	8.8%	6.5%	4.8%	
Cronbach Alpha	.899	.907	.910	.844	.898	

Table 8.5 Principal Component Analysis: Factor Loadings, Variance Extracted and Cronbach's Alpha (Final Validation Study)

8.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

An initial confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was estimated on the remaining 11 items. Overall, the estimated model fits the data reasonably well: $\chi 2$ (39) = 130.472, p = .000; Normed Chi-Square= 3.345, GFI = .932, CFI = .968; TLI = .955; RMSEA = .084, SRMR=.047. As previously highlighted, CMIN/DF statistic between 2 and 5 is considered adequate, with lower values being more desirable. For GFI, CFI, and TLI, the generally acceptable cut-off point is .90, with higher values being superior. Values of .08 or less for RMSEA and .05 or less for SRMR are indicative of good model fit. Since the final 11 items represent the five first order factors that correspond with a higher order CBI construct and since each item loaded significantly on the predicted dimension, no further items were removed. Thus, no substantial meaning could be derived from the modification indices or the standardised residuals. Confirmatory factor loading estimates ranged from .789 to .95, with t values ranging from a low of 14.751 to a high of 24.611 ($p<.000$), indicating highly significant factor loadings. Moreover, all first-order factor loadings exceeded .6 and the smallest t-value was 10.716 (see Table 8.6).

Factors and Indicators	**Estimates**		**t-value**
	Unstandardised	**Standardised**	
Cognitive Identification			
This brand is central to my identity.	1.000	.938	
My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity.	.881	.871	20.514
Affective Identification			
I feel emotionally attached to this brand.	.850	.808	19.165
I have a special bond with this brand.	1.049	.929	24.611
I feel a personal connection to this brand.	1.000	.886	
Private Evaluation			
I feel happy to be associated with this brand.	.964	.899	21.497
I am glad to be associated with this brand.	1.000	.928	
Public Evaluation			
Associating with this brand gives me social approval.	1.000	.789	
My association with this brand improves the way others view me.	1.140	.927	14.751
Emotional Responses			
A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.	.945	.859	16.052
If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.	1.000	.950	
Cognitive Identification	1.000	.822	
Affective Identification	1.155	.887	14.338
Private Evaluation	1.181	.806	13.585
Public Evaluation	.761	.765	10.716
Emotional Responses	.833	.644	10.915

Table 8.6 Item Loadings for Five-Factor CFA Model –Coefficients and t-values (Final Validation Study)

The second order factor model was further compared to a number of alternative models as shown in Table 8.7. Model 1 assumed that all items loaded directly onto a single CBI construct. Model 2 assumed a three factor model in line with social identity theory assumptions (cognitive, affective, and evaluative identification). Model 3 assumed a four factor model in line with EFA results in previous studies where cognitive and affective items load on the same factor (cognitive /affective, private evaluation, public evaluation, emotional responses). Model 4 assumed four first-order latent factors reflecting a single second-order construct. The fit measures revealed that the best fitting model is the second order factor model with five first-order factors (cognitive identification, affective identification, private evaluation, public evaluation, and emotional responses) compared to all other competing models (see Figure 8.2).

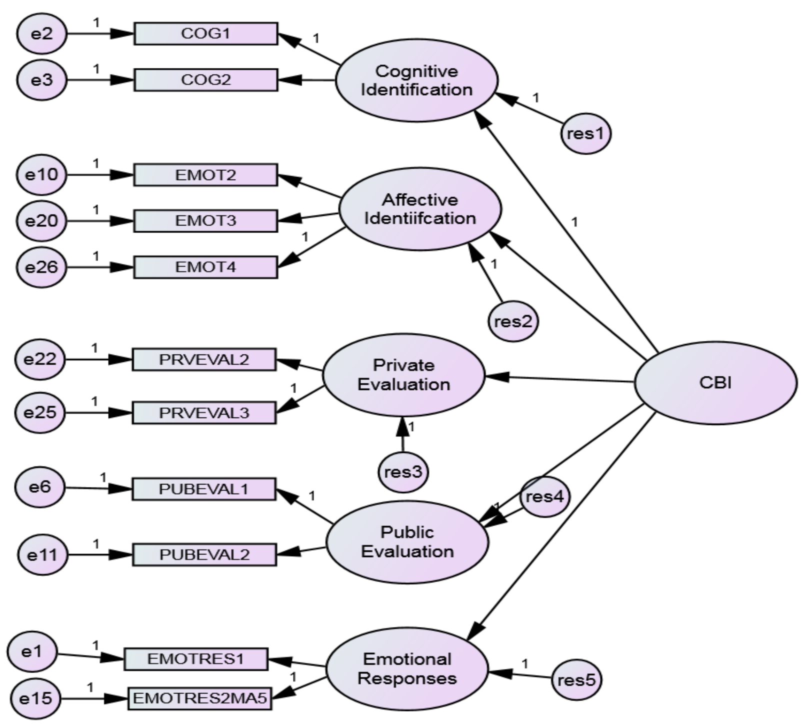

Figure 8.2 Consumer-Brand Identification Second-Order Factor Model (Final Validation Study)

Measurement Model	χ^2	df	Normed χ^2 χ^2/ dF	GFI	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA	PNFI	PCFI
Model 1: One Factor Model	893.190	44	20.300	.675	.704	.630	.101	.241	.555	.563
Model 2: Three Factor Model	576.192	41	14.053	.775	.813	.750	.097	.198	.598	.606
Model 3: Four Factor Model	352.813	38	9.285	.822	.890	.841	.066	.158	.607	.615
Model 4: Second Order Factor with Four First Order Factors	354.029	40	8.851	.821	.890	.849	.066	.154	.639	.648
Model 5: Second Order Factor with Five First Order Factors	130.472	39	3.345	.932	.968	.955	.047	.084	.677	.686

χ^2 = chi square, d.f. = degrees of freedom, GFI = goodness-of-fit index, CFI= comparative fit index, TLI= Tucker-Lewis index SRMR = standardised root mean square residual, RMSEA= root mean square error of approximation, PNFI= parsimony normed fit index, PCFI= parsimony comparative fit index.

Three-Factor Correlated Model includes cognitive identification, affective identification/emotional responses combined and public/private evaluation combined.

Four-Factor Correlated Model includes cognitive /affective identification combined, public evaluation, private evaluation and emotional responses dimensions

Second Order Factor with Five First Order Factors includes cognitive identification, affective identification, public evaluation, private evaluation and emotional responses dimensions.

Table 8.7 Goodness-of-Fit Indices of Alternative Measurement Models (Final Validation Study)

8.6 Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Similar to the previous two studies, convergent validity was assessed using three criteria. As illustrated in Table 8.6, all items loaded highly and significantly on their specified constructs, providing preliminary support for convergent validity. Moreover, all loadings of first order factors were above .6 and the t-values were statistically significant, suggesting a strong relationship between the first order factors and the second order CBI construct. The average variance extracted (AVE) for each dimension exceeded the .50 rule of thumb, exhibiting further support for convergent validity. Additionally, all composite reliabilities were above the generally acceptable cut-off level of .7 (see Table 8.8). Overall, the data provides evidence of the convergent validity of the second order factor model. Following this, discriminant validity was evaluated using Fornell and Larcker (1981) method by comparing the correlations between the dimensions to the square root of AVE. The results indicated that all square roots of AVE values exceeded the correlation for each pair (see Table 8.8), providing support for the discriminant validity among all CBI dimensions.

	CR	**AVE**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Public Evaluation (1)	0.852	0.743	**0.862**				
Cognitive Identification (2)	0.900	0.819	0.779	**0.905**			
Affective Identification (3)	0.908	0.767	0.613	0.698	**0.876**		
Private Evaluation (4)	0.910	0.835	0.579	0.605	0.773	**0.914**	
Emotional Responses (5)	0.899	0.817	0.429	0.515	0.625	0.510	**0.904**

Table 8.8 Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliabilities (CR), Construct Correlations, and Square Root of AVE on the Diagonal (Final Validation Study)

8.7 Common Method Bias

CFA marker variable technique (Williams et al., 2010) was utilised to detect the presence of common method bias. A three- item fantasy scale (Malhotra et al., 2006) was selected as the marker variable because it is not expected to be related to the dimensions of the CBI construct. Following this technique, four nested CFA models were estimated and compared to examine the presence of common method bias (CFA model, Baseline model, Method-C model, and Method-R model). The model fit results of the analysis for each model are presented in Table 8.9. Based on the results, the Baseline model had a reasonable fit i.e. CFI = .982 and X^2= 122.672 with 69 degrees of freedom. The chi-square difference test comparing the Baseline model with Method-C model was not significant, indicating that the factor loadings were not significantly biased by common method variance. In other words, there is no significant difference between the Baseline model factor loadings and Method-C model factor loadings. To further examine whether the correlation parameter estimates were significantly biased by marker variable method effects, Method–C model was then compared to Method-R model. The chi-square difference test resulted in a nonsignifcant difference between both models, indicating that the marker variable did not significantly bias the correlation estimates. This means there is no significant difference between the Baseline model factor correlations and Method-C model factor correlations (see Table 8.10).

	Model Fit				Chi Square Model Comparison Tests				Conclusion
Model	**X^2**	**df**	**P**	**CFI**	**Δ Models**	**Δ X^2**	**Δ df**	**P**	
CFA Model	118.077	62	0.000	0.981					
Baseline Model	122.672	69	0.000	0.982					
Method-C Model	121.544	68	0.000	0.982	Baseline vs. Method-C	1.128	1	0.288	This comparison provides a test of the presence of method variance associated with the marker variable. A chi square difference of 1.128 with one degree of freedom is lower than chi square critical value of 0.05 for one degree of freedom of 3.84.This test thus provided support that the marker variable has no significant effect on the factor loadings.
Method-R Model	121.580	78	0.001	0.985	Method-C vs. Method-R	0.036	10	1.0	This comparison determines the effect of the marker variable on the factors correlation parameter estimates. The chi-square difference test was found to be not significant, providing support that the marker variable did not significantly affect the factors correlation estimates.

Table 8.9 Common Method Bias- Goodness of Fit Values and Model Comparison Tests (Final Validation Study)

			Estimates	
			Baseline Model	**Method-C Model**
Cognitive Identification	<-->	Affective Identification	.698	.696
Cognitive Identification	<-->	Private Evaluation	.605	.604
Cognitive Identification	<-->	Public Evaluation	.779	.778
Cognitive Identification	<-->	Emotional Responses	.515	.516
Affective Identification	<-->	Private Evaluation	.773	. 773
Affective Identification	<-->	Public Evaluation	.613	.612
Affective Identification	<-->	Emotional Responses	.625	.625
Private Evaluation	<-->	Public Evaluation	.579	.578
Private Evaluation	<-->	Emotional Responses	.510	.511
Public Evaluation	<-->	Emotional Responses	.429	.430

Table 8.10 Common Method Bias- Baseline Model and Method-C Model Factor Correlations (Final Validation Study)

8.8 Measurement Invariance

Using multi-group CFA, measurement invariance across service categories (i.e. Group 1 which includes airlines, cafeterias, grocery stores, fast food chains and hotels and Group 2 which consists of banks, insurance companies, travel agents, hair dresses, pubs and restaurants) was examined in two phases: (1) configural invariance and (2) metric invariance (first order and second-order factor loadings). Satisfactory model fit indices in all groups, significant standardised loading estimates on postulated dimensions, and discriminant validity between the construct's dimensions provide support for configural invariance. The results showed that the two-group model fits the data reasonably well: X^2 (78) = 193.370, p = .000; Normed Chi-Square= 2.479, GFI = .905, CFI = .960; TLI = .943; RMSEA = .067, SRMR=.064 (see Table 8.11). Discriminant validity was found between the dimensions of the CBI construct (see Table 8.12) and all factor loadings were highly significant in both service categories (see Table 8.13). These findings illustrate that the CBI scale displays configural invariance across the two service categories. That is, the CBI second order construct is conceptualised in the same way across services.

Metric invariance was then tested to examine whether the factor loadings for each dimension are the same across service categories. To accomplish this test, all first-order factor loadings were constrained to be the same across service categories. The findings revealed that the model fits the data well: X^2 (84) = 196.836 p = .000; Normed Chi-Square= 2.343, GFI = .904, CFI = .960; TLI = .948; RMSEA = .064, SRMR=.045. Moreover, a chi-square difference test between the configural model (Model 1) and the metric invariance model (Model 2) was found to be nonsignificant (see Table 8.11). It can thus be concluded that the first-order factor loadings were invariant across service categories.

Finally, metric invariance of second-order factor loadings was examined by constraining the first-order and the second-order factor loadings to be the same across service categories. Once again, the chi-square difference test showed that there is no significant difference between both models (Model 2 and Model 3). In addition, the model fit indices were satisfactory: X^2 (88) = 202.330 p = .000; Normed Chi-Square= 2.299, GFI = .903, CFI = .960; TLI = .950; RMSEA = .063, SRMR=.046 (see Table 8.11). This means that the second-order factor loadings are equivalent across service categories. Hence, it can be concluded that the CBI construct is configurally and metrically invariant across service categories.

	Model Fit							Model Comparisons			
Model	**X^2**	**df**	**P**	**RMSEA**	**SRMR**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**Model Comparison**	**Δ X^2**	**Δ df**	**P**
Separate Service Categories											
Group 1	86.21	39	.000	.082	.043	.968	.955				
Group 2	107.1	39	.000	.108	.064	.950	.929				
Model 1: Configural invariance (no equality constraints imposed)	193.3	78	.000	.067	.064	.960	.943				
Model 2: Metric invariance for first order factor loadings	196.8	84	.000	.064	.045	.960	.948	2 vs.1	3.5	6	.74†
Model 3: Metric invariance for both first and second order factor loadings	202.3	88	.000	.063	.046	.960	.950	3 vs.2	5.5	4	.24†

†- not significant at p<0.05

Table 8.11 Measurement Invariance Tests for Service Categories (Final Validation Study)

First-Oder Factors	Group1		Group2	
	Standardised Loadings	t-value	Standardised Loadings	t-value
Cognitive Identification				
COG1This brand is central to my identity.	.928		.946	
COG2My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity.	.856	13.870	.881	15.144
Affective Identification				
EMOT2I feel emotionally attached to this brand.	.788	13.299	.823	13.514
EMOT3I have a special bond with this brand.	.907	16.849	.943	17.389
EMOT4I feel a personal connection to this brand.	.880		.890	
Private Evaluation				
PREVAL2I feel happy to be associated with this brand.	.914	16.402	.870	13.174
PREVAL3I am glad to be associated with this brand.	.917		.952	
Public Evaluation				
PUBEVAL1Associating with this brand gives me social approval.	.811		.785	
PUBEVAL2My association with this brand improves the way others view me.	.893	11.308	.950	10.492
Emotional Responses				
A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.	.817	11.090	.876	10.492
If a story in the media criticised this brand, I would feel embarrassed.	.957		.963	
Second Order factors				
Cognitive Identification	.804		.867	
Affective Identification	.905	10.381	.838	9.719
Private Evaluation	.815	9.758	.760	9.218
Public Evaluation	.792	8.322	.795	7.670
Emotional Responses	.675	8.406	.579	6.801

Table 8.12 Measurement Invariance- Standardised Factor Loadings and t-values across Service Categories (Final Validation Study)

	CR	AVE	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Group 1							
Public Evaluation (1)	0.842	0.728	**0.853**				
Cognitive Identification (2)	0.887	0.797	0.768	**0.893**			
Affective Identification (3)	0.894	0.738	0.667	0.701	**0.859**		
Private Evaluation (4)	0.912	0.838	0.661	0.599	0.768	**0.916**	
Emotional Responses (5)	0.883	0.792	0.443	0.533	0.669	0.529	**0.890**
Group 2							
Public Evaluation (1)	0.864	0.763	**0.873**				
Cognitive Identification (2)	0.909	0.834	0.814	**0.913**			
Affective Identification (3)	0.916	0.785	0.588	0.681	**0.886**		
Private Evaluation (4)	0.907	0.830	0.509	0.604	0.776	**0.911**	
Emotional Responses (5)	0.916	0.845	0.408	0.456	0.572	0.460	**0.919**

Table 8.13 Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliabilities (CR), Construct Correlations, and Square Root of AVE on the Diagonal for both Service Categories (Final Validation Study)

8.9 Nomological Validity

The previous sections of this chapter were devoted to confirm the stability of the CBI construct across a new sample of respondents and brands, assess its convergent and discriminant validity, detect the presence of common method bias, and finally examine the measurement invariance of the CBI scale across service categories. The attention is now directed to exhibiting evidence of nomological validity by examining the relationships between CBI and a number of potential antecedents and consequences. Nomological validity assesses the degree to which the newly developed measure relates to other latent constructs as predicted by the theory (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Specifically, nomological validity exists when the construct is related differently to antecedents and consequences. To that end, following Anderson and Gerbing (1988) guidelines, the two-step approach is used to test the hypothesised model (more details about the model were provided in Chapter 5). The next section outlines the analysis conducted to assess the measurement model before the structural model is evaluated in a later section.

8.9.1 The Measurement Model

Given that the CBI construct has been thoroughly assessed in the previous sections, the CFA was only applied to the hypothesised antecedents and consequences. Following the minimum level of estimate-to-observation ratio (1:5), around 66 parameters can be estimated with confidence given a sample size of 333. As a consequent, it is sensible to assess all the items of antecedents and consequences in one overall CFA model. Specifically, the initial measurement model included six latent constructs (i.e. customer orientation, economic preferential treatment, customised preferential treatment, participation, cooperation, and helping other customers) with 25 indicators. Overall, the measurement model provided broadly satisfactory level of fit except for GFI which fell short of the recommended value of .90: X^2 (261) = 611.234, p = .000; Normed Chi-Square= 2.342, GFI = .867, CFI = .941; TLI = .932; RMSEA = .064, SRMR=.044. The standardised factor loadings for all items were found to be greater than the generally accepted cut-off point of .50; however, one participation item had a standardised estimate that fell below .50. Modification indices highlighted three more items loading onto more than one variable. The measurement model was then subject to modification on the basis of the items' measurement properties (e.g. standardised loading, cross loading). This was done in an iterative process to ensure that the deletion of each item was necessary. This process resulted in dropping one item from the participation scale, one item from the economic preferential treatment scale, one item from the customised preferential treatment scale, and one item from the cooperation scale. The findings revealed that the resulting measurement model with 6 latent constructs and 21 reflective items was substantially improved: X^2 (174) = 253.828, p = .000; Normed Chi-Square= 1.459, GFI = .932, CFI = .983; TLI = .979; RMSEA = .037, SRMR=.037. The model exceeded the stringent criterion of .95 for CFI and TLI suggested by Hu and Bentler (1998). In addition, the model fit well within the generally accepted criteria of RMSEA ≤ .08 and SRMR ≤ .05. The measurement model was then tested to assess reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity of measures. All constructs presented Cronbach alphas larger than .74, above the recommended value of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). All composite reliability values exceeded .75, indicating high levels of internal consistency. All the measures displayed factor loadings well above the recommended values of .50 (Table 8.14). Each construct demonstrated convergent validity where AVE was above the generally acceptable cut-off point of .5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). Analysis of the Fornell-Larcker criterion (1981), which is based on the premise that the square root of AVE exceeds the correlation between each of the latent construct pairs, offered strong support for discriminant validity (see Table 8.15).

	Standardized Loading	**t-value**	**Cronbach α**
Customer Orientation			.890
Service provider's salespeople try to figure out what a customer's needs are	.774	13.708	
Service provider's salespeople have the customer's best interest in mind	.825	14.621	
Service provider's salespeople take a problem solving approach in selling products or services to customers	.832	14.737	
Service provider's salespeople recommend products or services that are best suited to solving the customer's problems	.769	13.621	
Salespeople of service provider try to find out which kinds of products or services would be most helpful to customers	.734		
Economic Preferential Treatment			.912
Service provider offers discounts to regular customers for their patronage	.835	19.919	
Service provider offers regular customer something extra because they keep buying there	.931	23.731	
Service provider offers special financial benefits and incentives to regular customers for their patronage	.875		
Customized Preferential Treatment			.922
Service provider makes more efforts for regular customers than for nonregular customers	.892		
Service provider offers special treatments to regular customers than to nonregular customers	.953	26.905	
Service provider does more for regular customers than for nonregular customers	.834	20.926	
Participation			.873
I make constructive suggestions to [service provider] on how to improve their service	.840	10.962	
I let [service provider] knows of ways that can better serve my needs.	.895	11.306	
If I have a useful idea on how to improve service, I give it to someone at [service provider]	.900	11.333	
If I notice a problem at [service provider], I inform an employee even if it does not affect me	.569		

Cooperation			.749
The employees of [service provider] get my full cooperation	.614		
I go out of my way to treat [service provider's] personnel with kindness and respect	.751	9.500	
I do things that can make [service provider's] employee's job easier	.766	9.538	
Helping Other Customers			.928
How likely are you to help others when they do not know how to use this service?	.844		
How likely are you to teach someone how to use the service correctly?	.955	23.565	
How likely are you to explain to other customers how to use the service correctly?	.909	22.237	

Table 8.14 Measurement Model - Standardized Factor Loadings, t-values and Cronbach Alpha (Final Validation Study)

	CR	AVE	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Economic Preference (1)	0.912	0.777	**0.881**					
Cooperation (2)	0.755	0.509	0.105	**0.714**				
Participation (3)	0.883	0.660	0.174	0.347	**0.812**			
Helping Other Customers(4)	0.931	0.818	-0.017	0.441	0.267	**0.904**		
Functional Orientation (5)	0.891	0.620	0.305	0.446	0.324	0.351	**0.788**	
Customized Preference (6)	0.923	0.800	0.749	0.071	0.209	0.011	0.312	**0.894**

Table 8.15 Measurement Model -Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliabilities (CR), Construct Correlations, and Square Root of AVE on the Diagonal for both Service Categories (Final Validation Study)

8.9.2 The Structural Model

The next stage is to test the structural model which depicts the hypothesized relationships between latent constructs. To test the hypothesized relationships, a structural model was built as follows: paths from customer orientation, economic preferential treatment, and customized preferential treatment to CBI (i.e. exogenous variables), and paths from CBI to participation, cooperation, and helping other customers. The fit indices of the structural model indicated an adequate fitting model:

X^2 (450) = 782.421, p = .000; Normed Chi-Square= 1.739, GFI=.869, CFI = .957; TLI = .953; RMSEA = .047, SRMR=.07. As the results indicated, the ratio of chi-square to the degree of freedom was lower than the recommended, CFI and TLI exceeded the recommended threshold of .95, and RMSEA was less than the recommended cut-off point .80 (Hair et al., 2010). In fact, the only two indices that return a poor value were the GFI and SRMR of .869 and .07 respectively. Although the structural model provided broadly satisfactory levels of fit, modification indices suggested that a number of paths could be added to produce a better fitting model. However, these were not implemented given that the main objective of testing the structural model was demonstrating the nomoligcal validity of the newly developed scale rather than exploring possible relationships between other constructs. As a consequent, the fit statistics of the model was considered acceptable and the significance levels for the hypotheses could then be discussed.

Five of the six hypothesized structural paths were significant and in the expected direction, indicating that most of the hypotheses were supported. Table 8.16 shows the unstandardized and standardized structural path estimates. Specifically, it was hypothesized that three antecedents, customer orientation (H_1), economic preferential treatment (H_2), and customized preferential treatment (H_3) are positively related to CBI. Empirical results supported the positive influence of customer orientation (β= .485, t-value= 6.721) and customized preferential treatment on CBI (β= .204, t-value= 2.347). However, the impact of economic preferential treatment on CBI was not supported (β= -.029, t-value= -.333). In examining the outcomes of CBI, the fourth hypothesis suggested that CBI has a positive influence on various customer citizenship behaviours. The results supported the positive significant influence of CBI on cooperation (β= .343, t-value= 4.611), participation (β= .399, t-value= 6.110), and helping other customers (β= .360, t-value= 5.7). It is worth mentioning that t-value of greater than 1.96 is significant at the 5% level, t-value greater than 2.576 is significant at the 1% level, and t-value greater than 3.291 is significant at the 0.1 % level. The explanatory power of the model is apparent in the R^2 values for CBI (R^2 = .322), cooperation (R^2 = .118), participation (R^2 = .159), and helping other customers (R^2 = .130). Together, these findings suggest that CBI indeed leads to favourable volunteering behaviours on behalf of the customers directed to the benefits of the service brand. Overall, the CBI construct performed as theoretically expected within the hypothesised nomological network, thus exhibiting evidence of nomologial validity of the newly developed measure. A summary of the results of the hypotheses are presented in Table 8.17.

Structural Relationship	**Unstandardized parameter estimate**	**t-value**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
H_1: Customer Orientation → CBI	.380	6.721	.485***
H_2: Economic Preferential Treatment →CBI	-.014	-.333	-.029†
H_3: Customized Preferential Treatment → CBI	.116	2.347	.204*
H_{4a}: CBI → Cooperation	.254	4.611	.343***
H_{4b}: CBI → Participation	.683	6.110	.399***
H_{4c}: CBI → Helping Other Customers	.656	5.700	.360***
R^2			
CBI			.322
Cooperation			.118
Participation			.159
Helping Other Customers			.130

Note. ***P <.001, **P <.01,* P <.05, †- not significant

Table 8.16 Structural Modelling Results-Newly Developed Scale of CBI (Final Validation Study)

Hypotheses	
H1: Customer orientation is positively related to CBI	**S**
H2: Economic preferential treatment is positively related to CBI.	**NS**
H3: Customized preferential treatment is positively related to CBI.	**S**
H4a: CBI is positively related to customer citizenship behaviours: cooperation.	**S**
H4b: CBI is positively related to customer citizenship behaviours: participation	**S**
H4c: CBI is positively related to customer citizenship behaviours: helping other customers.	**S**

S = Hypothesis is supported; NS = Hypothesis is not supported.

Table 8.17 Summary of Hypotheses Results (Final Validation Study)

8.9.3 Additional Analysis

An additional analysis was conducted to compare the utility of the newly developed measure, which includes cognitive, affective and evaluative dimensions, with Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) measure that focuses exclusively on the cognitive aspect of identification. The structural model discussed above (see Section 8.9.2) was repeated but the newly developed measure of CBI was replaced by Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) measure. With respect to the antecedents, it was found that customer orientation (β= .309, t-value= 4.964) and customized preferential treatment (β= .197, t-value= 2.174) were positively related to CBI. On the contrary, economic preferential treatment did not have a significant impact on CBI. With regard to the consequences, although it was found that cognitive identification was positively related to cooperation (β= .185, t-value= 2.809), participation (β= .239, t-value= 4.092), helping other customers (β= .257, t-value= 4.515), these relationships were considerably weaker compared to that of the newly developed measure of CBI. Moreover, less variance in CBI and customer citizenship behaviour was explained by the model (see Table 8.18) compared to the previous findings (see Table 8.16). Overall, these findings provide further support that consumer-brand identification is best conceptualized and operationalized as a multidimensional construct containing cognitive, affective and evaluative dimensions.

Structural Relationship	Unstandardized parameter estimate	t-value	Standardized parameter estimate
H_1: Customer Orientation → CBI	.402	4.964	.309***
H_2: Economic Preferential Treatment →CBI	-.039	-.516	-.047†
H_3: Customized Preferential Treatment → CBI	.184	2.174	.197*
H_{4a}: CBI → Cooperation	.083	2.809	.185**
H_{4b}: CBI → Participation	.248	4.092	.239***
H_{4c}: CBI → Helping Other Customers	.285	4.515	.257***
R^2			
CBI			.152
Cooperation			.034
Participation			.057
Helping Other Customers			.066

Note. ***P <.001, **P <.01,* P <.05, †- not significant

Table 8.18 Structural Modelling Results-B&B (2000) Scale of Identification (Final Validation Study)

8.10 Summary

This chapter presented the analysis undertaken in the final phase of the scale development process. The analysis confirmed the dimensionality, reliability and validity of the newly developed measure of CBI using a new sample of respondents and brands. Importantly, this chapter examined the nomological validity of the CBI measure. The first step towards testing the hypothesized relationships was to assess the measurement model. The findings showed that the measurement model satisfied the criteria of unidimensionality, reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity.

Two structural models were then tested, specifically a model including the newly developed measure of CBI and a model including Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) scale of cognitive identification. The results implied that (1) both brand identification measures were driven by the same set of antecedents, and (2) the newly developed multidimensional measure of CBI appeared to have a stronger influence on customer citizenship behaviours compared to Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) cognitive identification measure. The next chapter discusses findings from the analysis in relation to the relevant literature.

CHAPTER NINE
DISCUSSION

9. 1 Introduction

This chapter discusses and interprets the findings from the previous analysis (Chapter 7 and 8) in relation to the extant literature. The first section briefly discusses the current conceptualisations and measurements of consumer identification and their limitations in capturing the theoretical domain of the construct. Next, a definition of consumer-brand identification is provided consistent with the dimensions uncovered in this research. Following this, the development of a reliable, valid and parsimonious scale for measuring consumer-brand identification is presented. The discussion on scale development and validation is divided into separate discussions about the results of each of the phases contained in this thesis. Next, dimensions that materialised as a result of the empirical analysis are presented in light of the literature. With the conceptualisation and measurement of consumer-brand identification presented, the final section focuses on discussing the outcomes of the hypotheses conducted in this research in relation to other studies in the literature. Figure 9.1 shows how the structure of the chapter.

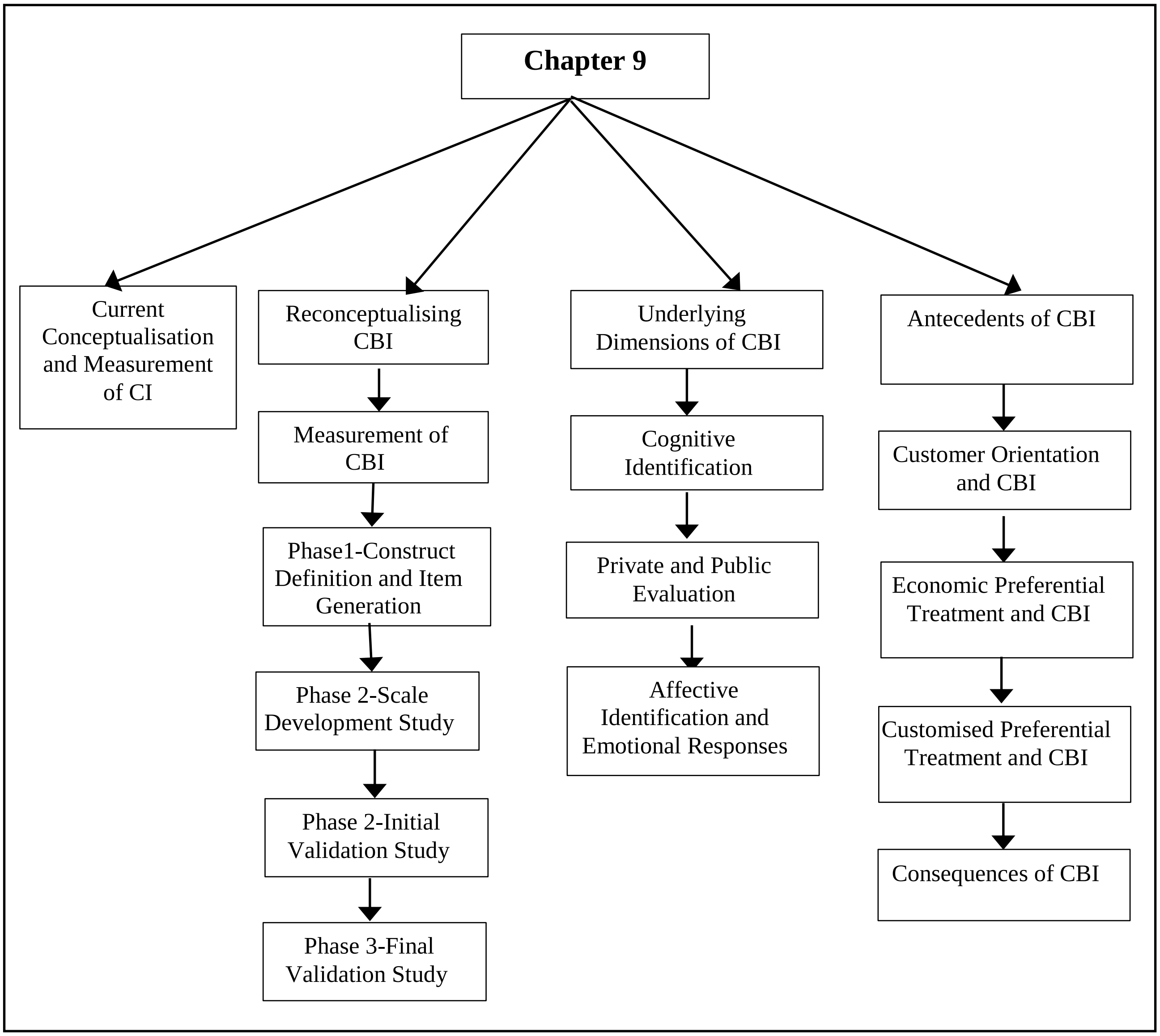

Figure 9.1 Structure of Chapter Nine

9.2 Current Conceptualisation and Measurement of Consumer Identification

Through a comprehensive systematic literature review, how consumer identification has been conceptualised and measured in the marketing literature was objectively assessed. It was observed that there is little consensus in conceptualisation or language used and limited evidence of reliability and/or validity in the scales employed. Specifically, the uncertainties surrounding the consumer identification construct, in particular in terms of its conceptualisation, dimensionality and operationalisation, was set out. Despite the confusion, there is a general consensus that an understanding of consumer identification is beneficial both theoretically and practically. However, in some respects, the cart has moved ahead of the horse in the consumer identification literature.

One of the key areas that lack consensus in the marketing literature is how consumer identification should be conceptualised. Two main approaches (Chapter 3) can be identified: consumer identification is a pure cognitive construct vs. identification is a multidimensional construct. Building on social identity theory and the literature, this research suggested that there is a slippage between the most cited definitions of consumer identification and the underlying theoretical foundation. That is, current cognitive conceptualisations do not adequately capture the theoretical domain of the construct. Consequently, it was posited that the multifaceted conceptualisation of consumer identification is superior to the pure cognitive conceptualisation. In particular, it is evident from recent studies in the marketing field that consumer identification goes beyond the cognitive dimension to involve some evaluative and affective dimensions, particularly as it argued that it is a significant omission to ignore those dimensions as a key part to identification. Secondly, a number of issues concerned with the reliability and validity of the popular scales used to measure consumer identification in the marketing literature was highlighted. Challenges (Chapter 3) levelled at the validity of the existing measures and questions about their appropriateness to measure consumer identification were examined at length. The shortcomings of the existing scales were attributed primarily to the flawed construct definition. Therefore, it was suggested that having a theoretical foundation, such as social identity theory, for conceptualising and operationalising consumer identification resolves the fundamental definition-measurement inconsistencies at the core of consumer identification research. In conclusion, following Lam (2012), Tidesley and Coote (2009) and Einwiller et al (2006), it was suggested that developing a rigorous multidimensional scale of identification reflecting the domain of the construct and linked to the conceptualisation is crucial to truly capture consumer-brand identification construct.

9.3 Reconceptualising Consumer-Brand Identification

Following Tajfel's original conceptualisation of social identity along with other conceptualisations of social identification (e.g. Cameron, 2004; Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Jackson, 2002), consumer-brand identification (CBI) was preliminary defined as:

"*The extent to which the brand is incorporated into one's self concept whereby the consumer perceives a self-defining cognitive association with the brand, values this association, and feels an emotional attachment toward the brand*".

This initial conceptualisation of brand identification specified the domain of the construct and served as a guide to the scale development process (Churchill, 1979; Devellis, 2003; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Specifically, it laid the foundation for generating an item pool that captures the domain of the construct. Building primarily on the social identity approach, a three dimensional conceptualisation of CBI was outlined focusing on the extent to which consumers cognitively associate themselves with the brand, have a sense of emotional connection with the brand, and value their association with the brand. Overall, the findings of the analyses provided clear support for the proposed three-dimensional conceptualisation of CBI. However, the results also demonstrated that each of the affective and evaluative identification comprises two distinct dimensions that contribute separately to CBI and that they should be measured separately. That is, affective significance derived from the brand's association reflects the emotional responses deriving from others' evaluations of the brand and the extent to which individuals feel emotionally associated with the brand. As well, value significance derived from that association reflects the individual's evaluation of the personal value derived one's association with the brand and the individual's evaluation of the social value derived from that association. The results therefore indicated that five dimensions of CBI should be treated as distinct but related constructs that make up a high order latent construct of brand identification. Now the construct's dimensionality has been revealed after a series of analyses and found to be consistent across samples and brands, it is possible to enhance this theoretical-based definition by integrating the research findings to conceptualise consumer-brand identification as follows:

"A *psychological state of perceiving a self-defining cognitive association with a brand together with the value and affective significance deriving from that association".*

9.4 Measurement of Consumer-Brand identification Construct

Following the scale development guidelines proposed in the literature (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 1991; Gerbing & Anderson 1988; Netemeyer et al., 2003), consumer-brand identification scale was developed and tested in three phases including two stages of expert item judging and three independent samples. Across several brands at both the product and service level and using multiple respondent samples, the CBI scale was found to be reliable and exhibit strong levels of convergent, discriminant validity and nomological validity. In what follows, the results of each phase in the scale development process is presented.

9.4.1 Phase 1- Construct Definition and Item Generation

The scale development process started from the development of theoretically grounded definitions of the CBI construct and its dimensions, building primarily on the social identity approach and other conceptualisations in the social psychology literature. These theoretical definitions served as guidance for the development of an initial inclusive set of items that capture the domain of the construct. Through two stages of expert item judging, the relevance of the items to the constructs definitions was assessed. This phase was primarily concerned with the content validity of the newly developed measure. Whereas the first stage of expert judging resulted in eliminating 27 items, rephrasing and rewording ten items to tap the intended construct accurately, the second stage of expert judging resulted in eliminating 20 more items. Overall, the number of items was reduced from 97 to 50 items. Sixteen items for cognitive identification, seventeen items for evaluative identification, and seventeen items for affective identification were retained for further testing.

9.4.2 Phase 2- Scale Development Study (1st Sample)

Next, the remaining fifty items were included in an online questionnaire for the next phase of the scale development process. The objective was to purify the scale from poorly performing items and to determine the construct's initial dimensionality. This was performed using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Following Hair et al. (2010) recommendations, it is preferable at this exploratory stage to try different extraction methods. Contrary to the expectations, a four-factor solution emerged from the principal component analysis while a three-factor solution was identified from the principal axis factoring. Despite this, in both factor structures the cognitive and affective items loaded on a single factor suggesting that the cognitive worded items include emotional aspects. The evaluative identification items loaded on two different factors suggesting that consumers' differentiate between personal value and social value derived from their association with the brand. Moreover, the two items emphasising consumers' emotional responses when the brand is attacked were retained using principal component analysis and dropped using principal axis factoring.

Since the initial phase provided support for the content validity of the items generated, it was decided to leave all the items retained from both extraction methods and further assess alternative factor solutions on the basis on these results. Five alternative models were then assessed and compared using confirmatory factor analysis (for more details about each model see Section 7.4.4.1). The confirmatory factor analysis revealed that the best model was the five-factor model. After inspection of the model's fit indices, standardised residuals and modification indices, more items were eliminated ending with a five-factor model consisting of 21 items with standardised loadings above .7. Moreover, the findings supported the convergent validity of the scale. However, cognitive identification and affective identification dimensions did not demonstrate discriminant validity using Fornell and Larcker (1981) method. Cognitive items addressing the linkage between the brand and the self may involve potential emotions about the brand (Park et al., 2010). A re-analysis of these two dimensions using a chi-square difference test and an investigation of the confidence interval around the correlation between the two dimensions provided evidence of discriminant validity. Theoretically, it has been argued that cognitive identification and affective identification are two distinct but correlated constructs (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Ellemers et al., 1999; Johnson et al., 2012; Lam et al., 2010). Following a CFA, it was found that the five-factor model is the best fitting model compared to four and three factor models. Moreover, two of three methods provided evidence of discriminant validity. Consequently, it can be said that some evidence of discriminant validity exists and further assessment is required. Finally, using a comprehensive CFA marker variable technique (Williams et al., 2010), it can be concluded that common method variance did not significantly bias both the indictor estimates and the correlation estimates between the five dimensions. As stated in Section 7.4.4.5, both dimensions were remained, however, five new items were added to provide more distinction among dimensions. The CBI scale now includes 26 items. The following section discusses the results of the second study.

9.4.3 Phase 2- Initial Validation Study (2nd Sample)

A second sample of respondents (with different brands for context) was employed to reconfirm the factor structure generated from the first study and to provide further evidence of the scale's convergent and discriminant validity. Overall, the first study revealed that the five-factor model was the best fitting model, however, the high correlation between the cognitive and affective identification dimensions presented a threat to discriminant validity between both dimensions. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to trim the scale from 26 items to 17 items. Contrary to the first study, both principal component analysis and principal axis factoring revealed a consistent pattern of results. Specifically, both extraction methods yielded a five-factor model. The internal consistencies of the scales reflecting the five dimensions were satisfactory, with all Cronbach alpha scores above .82. Moreover, the CFA results suggested that two additional items should be removed from the scale. After the removal of both items, the five-factor model consisting of 15 items provided satisfactory model fit with loading estimates ranging from .77 to .92. Following this, a set of measurement models compared the five-factor model in relation to five alternative models (for more details about the alternative models see Section 7.5.5.1). The findings revealed that a five first-order factor model and a second-order factor model with five first-order factors exhibit evidence of good model fit and therefore are competing representations of the underlying structure of the CBI construct.

At this stage, the second-order factor model was considered the most prudent choice for three main reasons. First, using parsimony fit indices (e.g. PNFI, PCFI), the second-order factor was relatively better fit. Second, the target coefficient indicated that 60% of the variation in the five first-order factors is explained by a second higher-order construct. Finally, following Koufteros et al. (2009) recommendations, it was found that including the five first-order factors simultaneously as antecedents into a model result in nonsignificant and opposite signs with the endogenous construct. It is thus theoretically meaningful and parsimonious to use the second-order factor model as a representation of the underlying structure of the CBI construct. Preliminary support for convergent validity was found given that all items loaded significantly on their intended constructs, composite reliabilities for each construct ranged from .832 to .929, and AVE estimates for each construct exceeded the .50 rule of thumb. Moreover, the five first-order factors loaded significantly on the second-order factor (i.e. consumer-brand identification), providing evidence of convergent validity of the second order factor model. Following this, the discriminant validity of the CBI five dimensions was thoroughly evaluated using three different methods. Overall, support for discriminant validity was found given that all AVE values exceeded the correlation squared for each pair of construct, the confidence interval for the correlation between each pair of dimensions did not include the value of 1, and for each pair of constructs the chi square of the unconstrained model was significantly lower than the chi square of the model with correlation fixed to 1.

An important objective of this study was to empirically demonstrate the discriminant validity of CBI compared to similarly related constructs. Using Fornell and Larcker (1981) method and a series of chi-square difference tests, the findings verified that CBI is empirically distinguishable from other similar related constructs including brand involvement, brand trust, brand loyalty, satisfaction, brand commitment, brand attitude, actual self-congruence, and ideal self-congruence. The convergent validity of the CBI scale was also determined by comparing the newly developed scale to established scales. The two established unidimensional scales selected are Mael and Ashforth (1992) organisational identification scale and Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) cognitive identification scale given that these two scales have been the most popular scales used to measure consumer identification in the marketing literature. The findings revealed that the proposed multidimensional scale converge at high levels with the other two established scales for both product categories (i.e. athletic shoes and beer), providing further evidence of convergent validity. In other words, this shows that the three measures belong to, or measure the same construct. Interestingly, the extent to which the three measures (i.e. the proposed scale, Bergami and Bagozzi scale, Mael and Ashforth scale) predict brand loyalty differed. The newly developed scale had the highest impact on brand loyalty, followed by Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) scale and finally Mael and Ashforth (1992) scale, thus providing further evidence of the scale's predictive validity.

Next, using CFA marker variable technique, the results indicated that common method bias is not a likely contaminant of both loading and correlation estimates results. That is, common method bias is unlikely to be a concern for this study. Following the confirmation of the measurement of the CBI dimensions and evidence of convergent, discriminant and predictive validity, the robustness and invariance of the developed scale across the two different product categories (i.e. athletic shoes and beer) were examined using equivalence-testing (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). The results provided support for both configural and metric invariance across both samples, suggesting that CBI is conceptualised in the same way and the items have the same meaning across products.

9.4.4 Phase 3- Final Validation Study (3rd Sample)

The objective in the third study was to further validate the measurement properties of the CBI scale in a new context (service brands) and importantly provide support of nomological validity. To provide further validation of the measurement properties of the CBI scale, a series of analyses were performed. First, the remaining fifteen items were submitted to principal component analysis with oblique rotation, resulting in eleven items across the five dimensions (two items for each dimension except affective identification included three items). This was followed by confirmatory factor analysis and an assessment of reliability, convergent and discriminant validity. Similar to the previous study, the CFA results showed that the five first-order factor model and the second-order factor model provided significantly better fit over alternative factor solutions (i.e. four-factor model, three-factor model, and one factor model).

The second–order factor model was considered the most appropriate representation of the CBI construct for three main reasons: (a) the five first-order factors loaded significantly on the second-order factor (estimates ranged from .64 to .87), providing evidence of the strong relationship between the first-order factors and the second-order factor (i.e. consumer-brand identification), (b) the target coefficient demonstrated that the second-order construct explain about 48% of the variance in the first-order factors, and (c) following Koufteros et al. (2009) suggestions, it was found that the highly correlated first-order factors (correlations ranged from .43 to .78) resulted in nonsignificant and opposite signs with the endogenous variable when entered simultaneously into a model. The reliability estimates for all dimensions, using both composite reliability and Cronbach alpha, exceeded .70. The CBI scale exhibited convergent validity as all items loaded significantly on their intended dimensions and the AVE for each dimension exceeded .50. Evidence of discriminant validity was also found as the square root of AVE for each construct exceed the correlation between each pair of construct. At this stage, the findings demonstrated the validity of the measurement properties of the CBI scale. This was followed by testing measurement invariance across service categories. Similar to the previous study, the findings provided support for both configural and metric invariance across the two service categories.

In summary, the findings across the three studies strongly support that CBI is a second-order factor model with five first-order factors. Moreover, the results support that the five dimensions are reliable and exhibit strong levels of convergent and discriminant validity. Most importantly, the proposed CBI scale should effectively demonstrate its nomological validity. Thus, the results of the hypothesised relationships between CBI and a number of potential antecedents and consequences are now discussed. However, before discussing the findings of the hypotheses, the following section is devoted to discussing each dimension in more detail.

9.5 The Underlying Dimensions of Consumer-Brand Identification Construct

Informed by the social identity approach and previous studies addressing social identification (Chapter 4), consumer-brand identification was proposed to comprise three dimensions: cognitive identification, evaluative identification, and affective identification. However, after a series of analyses, Chapters Seven and Eight demonstrated that CBI is a reflective second-order construct comprising five reflective first-order dimensions: cognitive identification, private evaluation, public evaluation, emotional responses, and affective identification (see Figure 9.2).

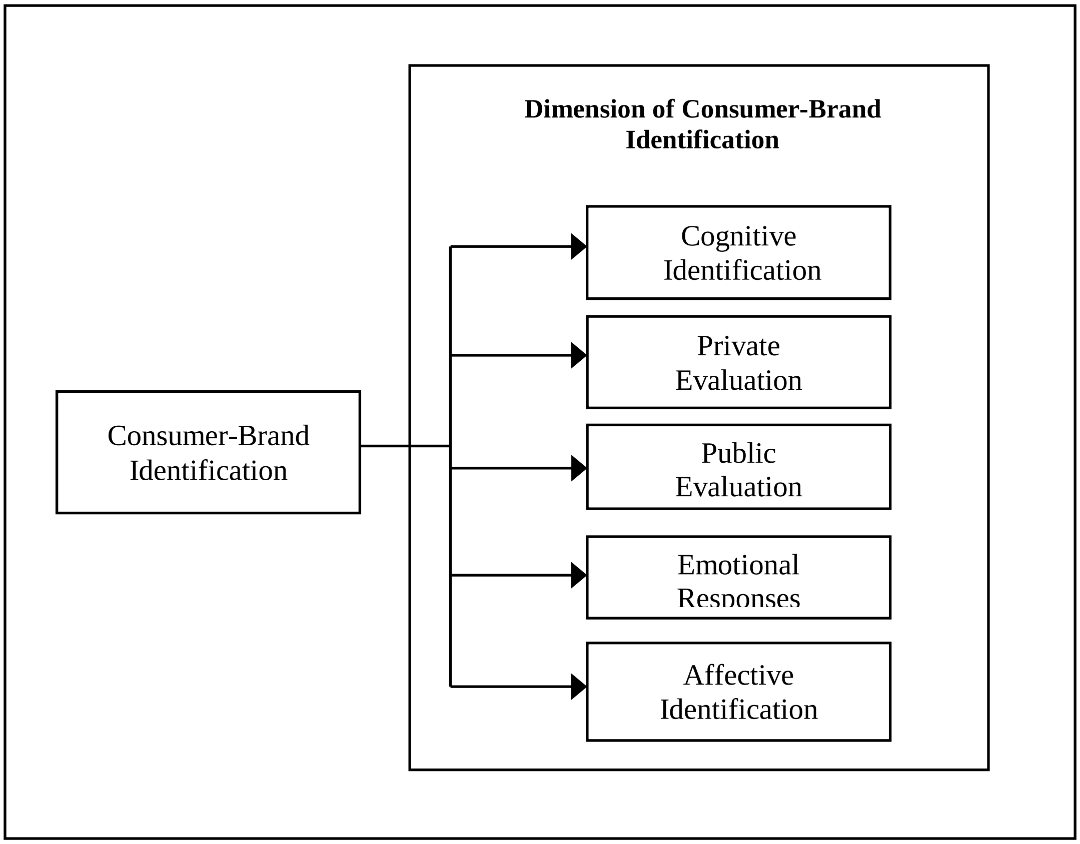

Figure 9.2 Dimensions of Consumer- Brand Identification Construct

9.5.1 Cognitive Identification

Based on theoretical and empirical grounds, cognitive identification is one of the dimensions of consumer-brand identification construct. As discussed earlier (Section 4.3.1), cognitive identification is defined as "*the consumers' readiness to self-categorise in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept*". Empirically, a dimension that contained two internally consistent and highly interrelated cognitive identification items emerged from the data. Theoretically, the logic for including cognitive identification as a dimension of brand identification was outlined in Chapter Four. The emergence of a cognitive identification dimension supports several scholars who noted the important role self-categorisation plays when developing identification. For example, Van Dick (2001: 272) stated that "only if this cognitive identification is given, the other dimensions……come into play and the individual can identify" with the brand. In a similar manner, Johnson et al. (2012: 1144) argued that "cognitive identification may be the precondition for someone to feel any type of emotions related to their identification". Specifically, the cognitive component of identification has been the most heavily emphasised dimension theoretically (Jackson, 2002). Further, empirical evidence that supports cognitive identification as a dimension of CBI has been found across several studies including groups (e.g. Hinkle et al., 1989; Jackson, 2002; Karasawa, 1991), organisations (e.g. Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Johnson et al., 2012; Van Dick et al., 2004) and brands (e.g. Bagozzi et al., 2012; Choo et al., 2011; Lam et al., 2013). Consequently, this finding reconfirms the salient role self-categorisation plays in identification. Additionally, it demonstrates that different product and service brands can be valid targets for cognitive identification.

9.5.2 Private and Public Evaluation

Earlier in this research, evaluative identification is defined as *"extent to which consumers value their association with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people"*. From a theoretical perspective, the logic behind including evaluative identification as a dimension of CBI was outlined in Chapter

Four. Although, it was theoretically proposed that evaluative identification represents one dimension of the CBI construct, two distinct dimensions emerged from the data. The first dimension, labelled private evaluation based on item content, consisted of two internally consistent and highly correlated items capturing one's personal value derived from his or her association with a brand. The second dimension, termed public evaluation in line with item content, included two internally consistent items reflecting one's social value derived from being associated with a brand.

These findings are at odds with authors such Lam et al. (2010), Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006), and Bagozzi et al. (2012) who empirically found that evaluative identification represents one dimension of consumer identification. One of the reasons for this divergence may be that Lam et al. (2010) focused on perceived others' evaluations of one's association with a target marketing entity "I believe others respect me for my association with brand" and one's individual role in group activities "I consider myself a valuable partner of brand". In a similar manner, Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006) and Bagozzi et al. (2012) primarily emphasised how individuals see their achievements in the context of group activities "I am a valuable member of group" and "I am an important member of group". However, drawing on social identity theory, social identification is a "function of both how one evaluates one's groups and how others evaluate those groups" (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992: 304). Conversely, this distinction between public and private evaluation clearly supports the work of Luhtanen and Crocker (1992) and Sellers et al. (1997). Whereas Luhtanen and Crocker (1992) used the terms of private self-esteem and public self-esteem to differentiate between these two forms of evaluation, Sellers et al. (1997) used the terms of private regard and public regard. Building on Luhtanen and Crocker (1992), Heere et al. (2011) reported the existence of private and public evaluation as two distinct dimensions of community identification (state, city, university, and team) together with four other dimensions. Consequently, this research contributes to the consumer identification literature by highlighting the importance of both personal and social appraisal attached to being associated with a particular brand.

9.5.3 Affective Identification and Emotional Responses

As stated earlier, affective identification is defined as "*the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand*". From the theoretical perspective, Chapter Four discussed the reasons why affective identification is a dimension of brand identification. However, in a similar manner to evaluative identification, items developed to tap the affective component of brand identification loaded on two distinct dimensions across different samples and brands. The first dimension, labelled affective identification based on item content, consisted of three items which paid particular attention to the sense of emotional association to a brand. The second dimension, labelled emotional responses in line with item content, comprised of two highly correlated items that reflect the individuals' emotional responses to others' evaluation of a brand.

The distinction between the two affective identification dimensions diverges from previous work, viz, Lam et al. (2010), Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006), and Homburg et al. (2009). Whereas Lam et al. (2010) "affective identification" dimension reflected the emotional loss resulting from not using the brand and emotional responses that consumers might have when the brand is glorified, Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006) emphasised individuals' sense of attachment to a community. On the other side, Homburg et al. (2009) included items reflecting the emotional attachment to a target marketing entity in consumer-company identification construct and items emphasising the emotional responses that employees might have when the company is attacked or glorified in employee-company identification construct. The two dimensions (emotional responses and affective identification) thus reflect aspects of identification that recur in the consumer identification literature, but not explicitly distinguished. Overall, this research responds to calls in the literature to examine the salience of emotion in CBI: Lam et al. (2010: 143) suggested that "affective and evaluative dimensions of CBI need further scale development and refinement" and Einwiller et al. (2006: 192) stated that "future research should examine the emotional aspect of consumer identification". To summarise, the finding that the emotional facet of CBI is composed of two dimensions therefore corroborates the view that the emotional aspect is an integral part of the brand identification construct.

9.6 Antecedents of Consumer-Brand Identification

The conceptual model (Chapter 5) proposed three hypotheses. These hypotheses were primarily concerned with examining three sets of relationships: the first was concerned with the relationship between CBI and customer orientation, the second addressed the relationship between CBI and economic preferential treatment, and the third examined the relationship between CBI and customised preferential treatment. Specifically, it was hypothesised that three antecedents, customer orientation

(H_1), economic preferential treatment (H_2), and customised preferential treatment (H_3) are positively related to CBI. Empirical results partially supported these assertions. Customer orientation (H_1) and customised preferential treatment (H_3) were deemed to be antecedents of CBI. However, the results suggested that economic preferential treatment does not significantly influence brand identification. The findings of testing the research hypotheses are summarised in Table 9.1. The following sections present a discussion of each of these findings in more detail.

Hypothesised Path		Results
H_1	Perceived Customer Orientation ----> Consumer-Brand Identification	Supported
H_2	Economic Preferential Treatment ----> Consumer-Brand Identification	Rejected
H_3	Customised Preferential Treatment----> Consumer-Brand Identification	Supported

Table 9.1 Summary of Results of Research Hypotheses (Antecedents and CBI)

9.6.1 Customer Orientation and Consumer-Brand Identification

The purpose of the first hypothesis was to examine the influence of employees' customer orientation on CBI in a service context. The findings revealed that perceived customer orientation significantly influences consumer identification with a service brand and it was even identified as the strongest predictor of consumer identification. In other words, when customers perceive that employees have a customer-oriented behaviour, this creates high level of identification with the service brand. This relationship contributes to a greater understanding of the crucial role that customer orientation plays in reinforcing identification with a service brand, thus emphasising the importance of identifying and satisfying customers' needs. The findings thus offer support for the prevailing notion that having customer-oriented employees leads to positive customer perceptions, and ultimately favourable benefits for the organisation (Brady & Cronin, 2001)

That customer-orientated employees influence CBI is consistent with previous studies where perceived employees' characteristics and behaviour were found to contribute to consumer identification (Ahearne et al., 2005; Homburg et al., 2009). For instance, Ahearne et al. (2005), in a consultative selling context of pharmaceutical sales reps calling on physicians, found that consumers are more likely to identify with a company if they perceive the characteristics of the boundary-spanning agent positively. Homburg et al. (2009), in the context of travel agencies, demonstrated the influence of customer orientation on consumer identification with a company. Importantly, compared with previous studies which mainly focused on the impact of employees on identification in specific service context, this research took into account a relatively broad set of service brands. Broadly speaking, the significance of customer orientation in terms of strengthening brand identification lends support to the notion that service organisations with employees who engage in customer-oriented behaviours are more likely to build enduring and lasting relationships with customers (Donavan et al., 2004; Homburg et al., 2011; Schwepker, 2003).

9.6.2 Economic- Preferential Treatment and Consumer-Brand Identification

Preferential treatment, expressed in terms of economic benefits, was selected as a determinant of consumer identification in relation to self-enhancement needs. Contrary to expectations, the results revealed the opposite. Specifically, economic preferential treatment, in the presence of both customer orientation and customised preferential treatment, does not have a significant influence on CBI. These findings are not consistent with previous studies in which tangible rewards provided to regular customers was found to partially enhance consumers' perceptions about the company (De Wulf et al., 2001; Odekerken-Schröderet al., 2003). For instance, De Wulf et al. (2001) found that tangible rewards significantly influence perceived relationship investment in three of four European samples, however, this was not true for the U.S sample. A likely explanation for this contradictory finding may be that preferential treatment based on providing economic benefits, in the presence of other antecedents, is considered less valuable to consumers. This view is consistent with Gwinner et al. (1998) findings in which special treatment benefits were perceived the least important to consumers compared to confidence and social benefits. Moreover, given that tangible rewards became widespread and can be easily imitated by competitors (De Wulf et al., 2001), it might be reasonably to conclude that economic preferential treatment alone does not play a significant role in reinforcing consumer identification in a service context.

9.6.3 Customised Preferential Treatment and Consumer-Brand Identification

The third hypothesis examined whether customised preferential treatment influences consumer identification with a service brand. Support for this hypothesis is in evidence. When consumers perceive that they are of special status within the service organisation compared to others, an enduring desire to identify with the service brand emerges. This is consistent with social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Identification with a service brand is partially contingent upon consumers' need for self-enhancement. The distinctive treatment of customers is perceived as special recognition and thus enhances consumers' self-esteem resulting in identification with the service brand. It is also consistent with other studies where preferential treatment was found to enrich consumers' relationships with the company. For instance, Lacey et al. (2007) reported that high levels of preferential treatment lead to relationship commitment, repatronisation intentions, and positive word of mouth. Likewise, in the context of museums, Camarero and Garrido (2011) found that non-material preferential treatment significantly influence organisational identification. This implies that it pays off for service organisations to invest in providing preferential treatment in terms of customised products and services to selective consumers, as it contributes to the psychological attachment between the company and the consumers, which in turn results in consumers' customer-citizenship behaviour.

9.7 Consequences of Consumer-Brand Identification

The conceptual model proposed one main hypothesis to address the consequences of brand identification. Specifically, the purpose of this hypothesis was to investigate whether CBI has a significant influence on customers' citizenship behaviours (CCBs), namely, cooperation, participation and helping other customers. The results are summarised in Table 9.2.

Hypothesised Path		Results
H_4	Consumer- Brand Identification-----> (a) CCBs: Cooperation (b) CCBs: Participation (c) CCBs: Helping Other Customers	Supported

Table 9.2 Summary of Results of Research Hypotheses (CBI and Consequences)

Consumer-brand identification plays a differential, yet positive significant role in predicting customers' citizenship behaviours. Broadly speaking, when consumers perceive a sense of identification with a service brand, three important behaviours occur. First, consumers share information with the service provider in the form of suggestions or feedback. Second, consumers cooperate with employees and treat them with more respect and courtesy. Finally, consumers may take the role of helping and assisting other customer when they face difficulties. However, scrutinising the findings within each of the extra-role behaviours, it was found that consumer-brand relationships based on identification are important predictors of customer participation (β=.398), followed by customer cooperation (β=.369) and finally helping other customers (β=.361). Overall, the existence of significant direct relationship between consumer identification with a service brand and their engagement in citizenship behaviours supports the arguments put forward by social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), namely that a likely result of identification may be seen in behaviours that benefit the service provider. Because identified consumers have a vested interest in the success of the brand (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003), they are likely to support the brand not only through consumption and preference of the brand over its competitors but also by engaging in citizenship behaviours on behalf of the service organisation (Ahearne et al., 2005). In fact, the findings are in line with researchers indicating that consumer identification plays an important role in predicting consumers' voluntary behaviour (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005; Bagozzi et al., 2012; Tsai & Pai, 2013).

9.8 Summary

This chapter discussed the results of the data analyses presented in Chapters Seven and Eight in relation to the literature. Prior to discussing the results of the hypothesised relationships between CBI and a number of potential antecedents and consequences, the conceptualisation and measurement of CBI were presented. The most important outcomes from this chapter are the support for the reliability and validity of the newly developed scale. Specifically, the findings across the three phases provided support that CBI is a second-order construct with five first-order dimensions that exhibit strong levels of reliability, convergent and discriminant validity. Furthermore, the discussion provided valuable insights regarding the relationship between CBI and other constructs in the conceptual framework, providing further evidence of the scale's nomological validity. The final chapter of this thesis presents the main theoretical, methodological, and practical contributions, limitations of the research and directions for future research.

CHAPTER TEN

CONCLUSIONS

10.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present conclusions of this study and make suggestions on directions for future research. Initially the theoretical contributions that materialise from this research are presented. This is followed by the methodological contributions. Thereafter, the managerial contributions are outlined. In the final section, limitations and directions for future research are offered. Figure 10.1 shows how the chapter is structured.

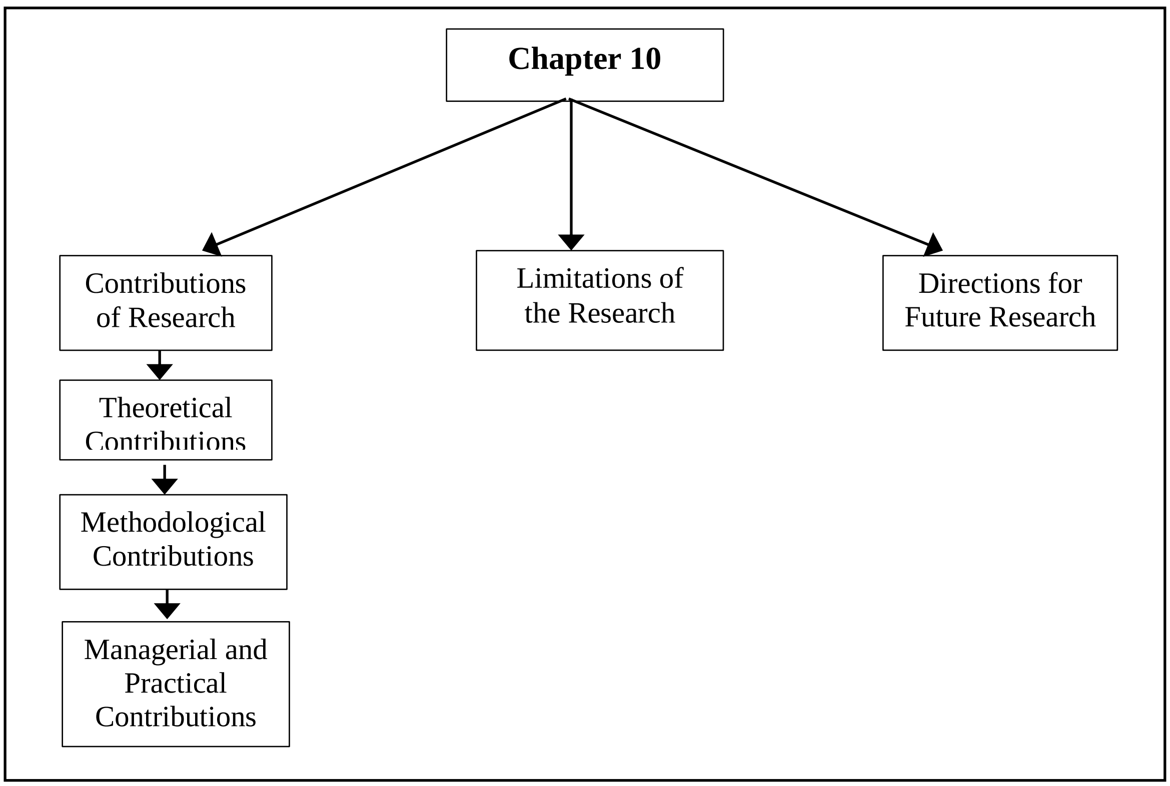

Figure 10.1 Structure of Chapter Ten

10.2 Contributions of Research

Corley and Gioia (2011) encourage scholars to address two germane dimensions when trying to communicate their theoretical contribution. Specifically, Corley and Gioia (2011) assert that originality and utility are fundamental to developing a theoretical contribution. Originality is categorised into incremental and revelatory insights, the former refers to significantly advancing theoretical understanding on a given topic and the latter proposes that "contribution arises when theory reveals what we otherwise had not seen, known, or conceived" about a phenomenon (Corley & Gioia, 2011: 17). Utility refers to theory that is scientifically useful, that is, "perceived as an advance that improves conceptual rigour or the specificity of an idea and/or enhances its potential to be operationalised and tested", and/or practically useful, as when theory can be directly applied to managerial problems (Corley & Gioia, 2011: 17-18). Consequently, the extent to which the contributions of this thesis fall within each of the dimensions presented above is discussed in the following sections.

10.2.1 Theoretical Contributions

First and foremost, this research has advanced the existing research on identification in the marketing literature by providing a clearer picture of the CBI construct and its dimensions and offering a theoretically grounded conceptualisation of the construct, thus providing original incremental insights (Corley & Gioia, 2011) to extant research on brand identification. Moreover, this was augmented by articulating the properties of the CBI construct and conceptually distinguishing it from other existing constructs in the marketing literature including brand loyalty, brand commitment, self-brand connection, brand relationship quality, brand attachment, self-image congruence, brand affect, value congruence, and brand attitude. This research thus addressed the calls from marketing scholars (e.g. Einwiller et al., 2006; Lam, 2012; Lam et al., 2010) to expand the boundaries of consumer identification and integrate the emotional and the evaluative aspects proposed by the social identity theory.

Second, guided by the domain-sampling model and the extant scaling literature (Churchill, 1979; Devellis, 2003; Gerbing & Anderson; 1988; Hinkin, 1998; Netemeyer et al., 2003), this research offers original revelatory insights (Corley & Gioia, 2011) to brand identification literature by developing a parsimonious, reliable and valid measure of CBI. To the best of author's knowledge, this research is the first to follow a rigorous and comprehensive approach to developing a CBI scale. Following a rigorous scale development process, this research has empirically demonstrated, across three independent samples and various product and service brands, that CBI is a second order multidimensional construct comprising five first order dimensions. These are cognitive identification, affective identification, private evaluation, public evaluation, and emotional responses. This gives rise to the multidimensional nature of the scale in contrast to the unquestionable popularised view that consumer identification is strictly a cognitive construct, suggesting that brand identification construct is far more complex than to be represented by a single unidimensional measure. Along these lines, this research showed that the five dimensions of CBI are distinct from each other. Furthermore, other constructs similar to CBI were empirically proven to be distinct constructs. Although these constructs may be potential antecedents or consequences of brand identification, they do not represent part of the CBI construct.

Third, the development of a reliable and valid measure of the CBI construct based on social psychological theories and appropriate for a branding context with psychometric properties will clear the path for future theory testing and empirical research, thus demonstrating scientific usefulness (Corley & Gioia, 2011) i.e. enhancing the current research practice of scholars. The empirical evidence showed that CBI has a significant influence on consumers’ behaviours. Marketing scholars can thus utilise the scale to gain a better understanding of brand identification influence on a range of endogenous variables. This new measure can also help to gain a better understanding of the psychological motivations behind consumers’ association and identification with particular brands. Overall, this newly developed scale may be valuable to further understand the role of brands in consumers’ lives. Moreover, the development of a multidimensional scale will allow scholars to study brand identification on an overall level and on a dimensional level. Researchers can further determine which dimensions of identification are more important to consumers and consequently lead to the engagement in more favourable behaviours directed to the benefits of the brand.

Fourth, original incremental insights (Corley & Gioia, 2011) are provided to the body of growing research on consumers' relationships with brands by proposing and empirically testing relationships amongst relatively under-explored constructs. Addressing the relationships among these variables paves the way for a better understanding of how to build consumer-brand relationships through identification. Unlike previous studies that focused on brand prestige and reputation as facilitators of self-enhancement, this research has focused on the role of employees themselves and more on the relationship marketing tactics employed by the service provider (i.e. preferential treatment). The findings of this research highlighted the importance of both employees' customer-oriented behaviour and preferential treatment (in terms of customised services and products) as effective precursors that enhance consumers' identification with the service brand. Hence, this research supplements previous research on brand identification by introducing customer orientation and customised preferential treatment as drivers of CBI. More importantly, support is provided for one of the main premises of social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Based on the findings of this research, it appears that consumers are more likely to form enduring relationships with the brand that enhances their self-esteem.

Finally, this research joins a number of studies (e.g. Lam et al., 2012; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012) that focus the attention to CBI as a promising construct that influences consumers' behaviour. This sense of psychological belongingness with the brand is critical because it goes beyond the classic loyalty behaviour to influence consumers' citizenship behaviour. Specifically, the findings revealed that consumers who identify with a service brand are more likely to engage in citizenship behaviours. This research further contributes to brand identification literature by highlighting the value of a multidimensional measurement that is rooted in principles of social identity theory compared to a cognitive identification scale (i.e. Bergami and Bagozzi scale) in predicting customer citizenship behaviours. Organisational behaviour researchers (e.g.

Johnson et al., 2012; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) have underscored the importance of having individuals whose psychological attachment is based on identification. Moreover, these findings lend support to Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) argument that consumers who identify with a brand will often become champions of the brand, not only by remaining loyal but also by engaging in favourable behaviours directed to the benefits of the brand.

10.2.2 Methodological Contributions

At the methodological level, this research contains a number of contributions. First, within the scope of the first phase, this research furthered the content validity assessment by utilising a substantive validity analysis technique prescribed by Anderson and Gerbing (1991). The main objective was to examine the content validity of the CBI construct using a quantitative objective method. This technique may be a promising tool for marketing studies to go beyond literature support per se to offer rigorous evidence of content validity of scales used in empirical research.

Second, a comprehensive CFA marker variable technique was employed for detecting the presence of common method bias. This is associated with the advantage that the newly developed measure of CBI was not seriously affected by common method bias at the item level, given that other approaches (e.g. partial correlation method) include only scale-level analysis. Third, the majority of developed scales give little attention to the plausibility of measurement invariance and as a consequent assume invariance across contexts, products, brands….etc. To increase the applicability of the developed scale across various products and services and having evidence of measurement invariance across product and service brands, a multi-group covariance structure analysis approach was employed across two studies to examine measurement invariances. The results provide empirical support for the invariance of the CBI scale when it is applied to different types of products and services.

10.2.3 Managerial and Practical Contributions

Corley and Gioia (2011: 18) maintain that a research study has practical utility if it “can be directly applied to the problems practising managers and other organisational practitioners face”. Given that building committed and enduring relationships with consumers is a key marketing objective for most firms, the new knowledge considering the development of meaningful relationships based on identification emerging from this research has value to mangers and practitioners. First and foremost, before managers can develop and build a strong and meaningful relationship with consumers based on identification, they need to understand what does identification mean? How it can be assessed? This research provides managers with a deeper understanding of the self-defining role brands play in consumers’ lives. As symbolic and personal meaning adds value to the brand beyond the traditional functional benefits derived from brands, it is prudent to take initiatives that make the brand’s symbolic value more appealing for target customers. Importantly, this research provides a better understanding of what identification is and what constitutes identification. Moreover, the underlying scale items provide practitioners with clear guidance and thoughts around each dimension.

Second, the newly developed CBI scale is not only reliable and valid, but also parsimonious, which provides practitioners with a useful diagnostic tool to assess the identification level of current and potential customers. Over time, managers could use the measure as a tool to assess the effectiveness of brand's associations, relationship marketing tactics, and employees' behaviour in influencing the level of identification and thus may clearly understand in which area the brand succeeds or fails. As practitioners gradually get to understand the dynamics between their efforts and consumer identification, they may be in a position to build a psychological association between their brand and consumers. Additionally, the integrated multidimensional nature of consumer identification implies that managers should carefully consider all dimensions when developing their strategies to realise the construct's full benefits. The high correlation between dimensions implies that neglecting one of the dimensions affects other dimensions of identification. Third, the newly developed measurement tool is suited for both product and service brands. The fact that the CBI newly developed scale was found to be invariant (i.e. configural and metric invariance) across different products and services suggests that managers could feel confident in utilising the new scale. Specifically, it was demonstrated that consumers perceive the CBI construct in a similar manner across different product and service brands and that the construct's items as well have the same meaning.

Fourth, the results provided building blocks upon which managers may engender consumer-brand identification and increase the likelihood of experiencing citizenship behaviours from their customers. This research outlined the critical role played by employees in influencing the extent to which consumers' identify with a service brand. In particular, service managers should recognise that customer-oriented behaviour helps ensure a meaningful, committed and long-term relationship between consumers and service brands. Thus, it may be valuable for managers to promote customer-oriented behaviours among employees using different approaches. Such efforts can enhance consumer-brand identification and consequently volunteering behaviour including participation, cooperation and helping other customers. One obvious approach is to develop current employees' behaviour through training, coaching, and even incentive programs. The importance of customer-oriented behaviours to consumers and the benefits that can be derived from such behaviour should be clearly understood by the employees. Moreover, employees need to acquire specific skills that help them identify customers' needs and develop solutions in a timely manner that ultimately results in customer satisfaction. Additionally, recruiting new employees requires careful thought where employees with higher levels of customer orientation would be more attractive to hiring and thus their customer-oriented behaviour could be easily developed through training. The environment surrounding the employees can also foster their customer-oriented behaviour. For instance, emphasising the importance of selling rather than customer satisfaction would lead the employees to engage in selling orientation rather than customer-oriented behaviour. In addition, it is important to highlight the critical role of the manager's behaviour toward customers in influencing the employees' perspective of the orientation that should be undertaken.

Fifth, companies strive to build strong and meaningful relationships with consumers through different relationship marketing efforts. This research revealed that relationship efforts have differential impact on brand identification. Specifically, the results emphasised the importance of preferential treatment in terms of customised products and services, driven by consumers' self-enhancement needs, in influencing consumers' identification with a service brand. This demonstrates that companies capable of treating and serving regular consumers differently can reap the resulting benefits in terms of enduring relationships with consumers. Thus, managers are in a better position to build strong relationships with customers by ensuring proper implementation of these relationship marketing tactics. In contrast, preferential treatment in terms of economic benefits should be utilised cautiously as they do not have a significant influence on consumer identification. This holds important implications to mangers because it shows that economic preferential treatment is less valued by the consumer and thus less effort should be directed at this type of preferential treatment. Given the limited resources available, it may be prudent to invest in providing more customised products and services to valuable customers rather than offering discounts or financial incentives. In turn, managers should focus on customised preferential treatment that is more likely to enhance long-term relationships with customers and use it as a means to differentiate the company from its competitors.

Sixth, the findings suggested that on a general level consumers identify with a brand that satisfies their self-enhancement needs, which in turn enhance their attitudes and behaviours toward the brand. This shows that consumers are more likely to form committed relationships with brands that help them maintain and enhance their social identity. Marketers and advertisers of high expressive product categories compared to low expressive product categories might benefit from positioning the brand as a prestigious brand to enhance consumers' identification. Thus, it may be valuable to managers to take initiatives that make the brand more appealing and attractive for customers to satisfy their self-enhancement needs. Initiatives aimed at enhancing consumers' perceptions of the brand attractiveness may grant the brand an edge over competing brands. Moreover, taking appropriate steps to ensure that the association between the brand and its consumers is highly visible to others is more likely to enhance identification. Finally, the findings revealed that identified customers are more likely to engage in different forms of citizenship behaviours. Specifically, brand identification was found to play a differential yet positive role in affecting customer citizenship behaviours. Given the proactive outcomes of consumers' identification with service brands, investing in strategies that aid building strong brand identity and consumer identification may be a promising avenue to address customer citizenship behaviours. Companies should always view customers as active partners in the service delivery process rather than as passive audience. Moreover, managers may wish to employ the measurement scale to assess the influence of brand identification on other important outcomes. For example, are consumers who are strongly identified with a brand more likely to become champions or advocates of this brand (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003)? Therefore, companies could potentially have another tool to manage and assess customer attitudes and behaviours.

10.3 Limitations of the Research

As with any study of this nature, this research is not without limitations. First, as with any scale development research, caution should be exercised while applying this scale to other contexts (products, services, countries….etc.). Whereas evidence had been provided regarding the stability of the scale across independent samples and its invariance across different product and service brands, further evidence of generalisability is required. An obvious extension for this research is using this scale in other contexts. Second, a qualitative stage (i.e. in depths interviews and/or focus groups) could have been conducted together with the literature review to generate more additional items. Using a qualitative stage could potentially have improved itemisation and thus reduced measurement error (Ping, 2004). Specifically, Ping (2004: 134) stated that “focus groups can reveal the specific language the study population uses to communicate regarding these constructs. This information is then used to improve the phrasing of item stems, and thus reduce measurement error”. Thus, further refinement of the CBI scale developed in this research is definitely possible based on further qualitative research. Such amendments may include the addition or deletion of items or even a modification of the dimensional structure of the construct. Although this research captured the domain of the construct in line with social identity theory, however, some conceptual richness may have been lost by not employing qualitative research at some stage.

Third, are Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) respondents the most appropriate sample for the second phase of the research? An argument can be made that a random sample of consumers recruited through traditional channels would have been more appropriate. However, as previously discussed, AMT respondents were found to be more diverse and representative compared to online and student respondents. Additionally, the quality of data provided by AMT was found to be reliable and valid. While it can be argued that AMT respondents are suitable for early stages of scale development, it is indeed a limiting factor that should be considered. In an attempt to reduce the potential limitation of using AMT respondents, all the analyses were replicated in the third study using normal British consumers and service brands (rather than product brands) which provided further empirical support for the stability of the scale.

Fourth, by limiting the third phase sample to Hull and Beverly areas, can be argued to pose additional concerns with regard to the generalisability of the findings. Ideally, a larger sample generated from respondents all over UK potentially would have reduced such coverage error or sample selection bias. Chapter Six highlighted that a stratified random sample representing Cameo classification of UK consumers was selected to reduce the uncertainties regarding the representativeness of the sample to the population. Additionally, due to the manner in which the data was collected (drop-off surveys) in the final validation study (Phase Three), it was not possible to assess non-response bias. Could the individuals who chose to respond to the questionnaires were the most identified with the service brand or they are individuals who like to contribute to research projects and be part of prize draw? Fifth, a cross-sectional design was conducted in this research, which effectively collects information at a single point in time. Whereas the use of cross-sectional survey data can be helpful in understanding directional relationships among constructs, it does not allow for causal inferences. Any casual ordering among constructs is purely based on theoretical evidence from the literature. Casual inferences are best confirmed using longitudinal designs.

Finally, in the final validation study, the explained variance in consumer-brand identification and customer citizenship behaviours ranged from 13% to 33%. Thus, it seems that there are other variables that should be investigated as possible antecedents of brand identification and citizenship behaviours. Considering the time and financial constraints, in developing the conceptual model and selecting the constructs to be investigated, there was a trade-off between being comprehensiveness and parsimonious. Whereas several constructs can be included in the conceptual model and can be used to assess the nomological validity of the newly developed scale, a decision must be taken at some point regarding the most significant and unexplored constructs to be examined based on the literature. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that not all possible interrelationships between constructs investigated in the conceptual model were tested. For instance, the relationship between customer orientation, preferential treatment and customer citizenship behaviour could have been tested. Again, the main objective of the conceptual model was to assess the nomological validity of the developed scale, thus testing other possible interrelationships between constructs are not in line with the research objectives.

10.4 Directions for Future Research

The limitations outlined in the above section should not undermine the valuable insights and significance findings provided in this research, however, these limitations suggest a number of issues in need of further investigation. First, this research was restricted largely to functional and symbolic products as well as service brands. Future research is required to further validate the measure to a wider set of categories and settings including online service providers and privately consumed products. Moreover, future tests of the generalisability of the scale to other cultural contexts such as Africa and the Middle East are required. Replicating the measure in different research contexts contributes towards the generalisability of the scale's dimensionality. Second, the systemic literature review indicated that most of the studies were devoted to empirically investigate the drivers and outcomes of consumer identification. However, qualitative and conceptual studies addressing the process of identification are scare. More research is needed to shed further light on the nature of identification and to increase the understanding of the identification theory in the consumer context. Additionally, examining identification at the group-level and multiple levels (i.e. more than one level) is underrepresented in the literature. Perhaps more research in this area could provide new insights into the identification literature.

Third, there appears to be conceptual and operational crossover between consumer identification and existing constructs in the marketing literature, raising concerns about the discriminant validity of the construct. This research showed that CBI is conceptually and empirically distinguishable from similarly related constructs. However, it is valuable to establish the operational distinctiveness between brand identification and other cognate marketing constructs (e.g. self-brand connection, brand relationship quality, and brand attachment) that were not investigated in this research. Assuming that brand identification and other closely related constructs are indeed important concepts, it is important that researchers have a clear understanding how these constructs are different. Equally, it is important for managers to have a clear view of these constructs and their implications on different key consumer attitudes and behaviours.

Fourth, future researchers investigating why consumers identify with some brands and not others could extend the conceptual model tested in this research by including other possible relationship marketing tactics such as communication and personalisation. Arguably, specific characteristics of employees such as likeability or expertise may play a role in influencing identification, thus warranting further investigation. Additionally, further research might highlight the importance of personality variables in engendering identification. Whereas the role of personality variables, such as sentimentality, in identification has been examined in organisation studies, there is a lack of research in the consumer-context. Indeed, a myriad of factors could engender identification and the current contribution is only one small step toward identifying a number of antecedents of brand identification. Further, the interrelationships between several constructs in the conceptual model require further investigation. For example, investigating the differential impact of preferential treatment and customer orientation on customer citizenship behaviours would provide valuable insights.

Fifth, although this research demonstrated the influence of brand identification on customer citizenship behaviours, it is important to consider the utility of the conceptual framework for other dependent variables. Specifically, this study examined the benefits derived from consumers' identification to the company and brand, however, little attention has been given to the benefits of identification to the individual. Therefore, addressing the individual's psychological outcomes of identification is a worthwhile future research endeavour. Moreover, the consequences examined in this research were all favourable outcomes. Valuable insights could be provided by examining potentially negative consequences associated with brand identification. Finally, future research could investigate conditions under which suggested relationships can attenuate or strengthen. Conceivably, constructs such as product involvement, consumption profiles (owners vs. new consumers), length and intensity of relationship, consumer profiles (gender, income, and education) could play such moderating roles. Research into such moderators would provide additional insights into when and how the influences of antecedents on CBI may differ.

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APPENDIX A1

A Full List of Items Pool, Source, and Context

Item	Source	Context
Cognitive Identification		
1. Brand X reflects who I am.	Self-brand connection scale (Escalas & Bettman, 2003)	Brands
2. I consider Brand X to be “me” (it reflects who I consider myself to be).	Self-brand connection scale (Escalas & Bettman, 2003)	Brands
3. Brand X is an important reflection of who I am	Centrality subscale of ethnic identification (Sellers et al.,1997) Self-categorization subscale of social identity (Ellemers et al.,1999) Centrality subscale of social identity (Cameron, 2004)	Black Identity Groups Universities, Nationalities & Gender.
4. Brand X is an important indication of who I am	Self-extension tendency scale (Ferraro et al., 2011)	Possessions
5. Brand X says a lot about the kind of person I am.	Self-concept connection subscale of brand relationship quality (Ekinci et al., 2004)	Restaurant Brands
6. I believe that brand X help me define who I am	Self-concept subscale of consumer-company identification (Hildebrand et al., 2010)	Companies
7. Brand X is part of who I am	Brand-self connection subscale of brand attachment (Park et al., 2010) Possession-self link scale (Ferraro et al., 2011)	Brands Possessions
8. I consider Brand X to be part of myself.	Self-extension tendency scale (Ferraro et al., 2011)	Possessions
9. Part of me is defined by Brand X	Self-extension tendency scale (Ferraro et al., 2011)	Possessions
10. Brand X is a big part of who I am.	Self-categorizing and labelling subscale of organizational identification (Edwards & Peccei, 2007)	Organizations
11. In general, Brand X is an important part of my self-image.	Centrality subscale of ethnic identification (Sellers et al., 1997) Centrality subscale of social identity (Cameron, 2004)	Black Identity Universities, Nationalities &Gender

12. Brand X is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am	Centrality subscale of ethnic identification (Sellers et al., 1997) Identity subscale of collective self-esteem (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992)	Black Identity Ascribed Groups
13. Brand X is central to my identity.	Possession-self link scale (Ferraro et al., 2011)	Possessions
14. I derive some of my identity from Brand X.	Possession-self link scale (Ferraro et al., 2011)	Possessions
15. If brand X was not around any longer, I would feel like I had lost a little bit of myself.	Attachment scale (Ball & Tasaki, 1992)	Possessions
16. Without Brand X, I would feel a little bit less like myself.	Attachment scale (Ball & Tasaki, 1992)	Possessions
17. This brand is part of myself, without, I would feel something is missing.	Self connective attachment subscale of brand relationship quality (Kim et al., 2005)	Brands
18. Since this brand shows who I am, I would feel empty without it.	Self connective attachment subscale of brand relationship quality (Kim et al., 2005)	Brands
19. If I were describing myself, Brand X would likely be something I would mention.	Attachment scale (Ball & Tasaki, 1992)	Possessions
20. I often refer to the name of brand X when I introduce myself.	Self-categorization subscale of team identity (Heere & James, 2007)	College Football team
21. Probably, people who know me might sometimes think of brand X when they think of me	Attachment scale (Ball & Tasaki, 1992)	Possessions
22. Brand X says something to other people about who I am.	Brand-self connection subscale of brand attachment (Park et al., 2010)	Brands
23. I (can) use Brand X to communicate who I am to other people	Self-brand connection scale (Escalas & Bettman, 2003)	Brands
24. I can identify with Brand X.	Self-brand connection scale (Escalas & Bettman, 2003) Self-extension tendency scale (Ferraro et al., 2011)	Brands Possessions
25. I consider myself a typical user of brand X	Self-categorizing & labelling subscale of organizational identification (Edwards & Peccei, 2007) Self-categorization subscale of identification (Stoner et al., 2011)	Organizations Organizations & Social Groups
26. I don't act like a typical user of brand X.	Sharing characteristics with other consumers subscale of consumer-company identification (Hildebrand et al., 2010)	Companies
27. If I asked if I am a typical user of brand X, I would say "yes".	Self-categorization subscale of identification (Stoner et al., 2011)	Organizations & Social Groups
28. I represent a typical user of brand X.	Goodness of fit subscale of identification (Stoner et al., 2011)	Organizations & Social Groups
29. I define myself as a user of brand X.	Initial items of identification scale (Stoner et al., 2011)	Organizations & Social Groups

30. I often acknowledge the fact that I am typical user of brand X.	Self-categorization subscale of team identity (Heere & James, 2007)	College Football Team
31. I think it is accurate if I was described as a typical user of brand	Self-categorization subscale of team identity (Heere & James, 2007)	College Football Team
32. I feel a personal connection to Brand X	Self-brand connection scale (Escalas & Bettman, 2003)	Brands
33. Brand X suits me well	Self-brand connection scale (Escalas & Bettman, 2003)	Brands
34. Your own sense of who you are (i.e., your personal identity) overlap with your sense of what [brand] represents (i.e., the [brand]' s identity)?	Cognitive identification subscale of consumer-brand identification (Lam et al., 2010)	Brands
35. Overall, being a brand X user has very little to do with who I am	Centrality subscale of ethnic identification (Sellers et al., 1997) Centrality subscale of social identity (Cameron, 2004)	Black Identity Universities, Nationalities & Gender.
36. Brand X and I have a lot in common	Possession-self link scale (Ferraro et al., 2011)	Possessions
37. Brand X shows who I am.	Self connective attachment subscale of brand relationship quality (Kim et al., 2005)	Brands
38. Brand X symbolizes what kind of person I am.	Inner self subscale of self-expressive brand (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006)	Brands
39. Brand X represents my self- identity.	Devloped by the author	
40. If brand X is no longer around, I would feel like I lost an important part of my identity.	Devloped by the author	
41. I am true brand X fan.	Devloped by the author	
42. I believe brand X represents part of me.	Devloped by the author	
43. Brand X reflects some aspects of my self-identity.	Devloped by the author	
44. Brand X says a lot about my identity, it is more than just a purchase.	Devloped by the author	
45. Brand X fits my self-concept	Devloped by the author	
Evaluative Identification		
46. My association with brand X makes me feel good	Brand love scale (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006) Emotional value subscale of consumer perceived value (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001)	Brands Consumer durable product at a brand level
47. My association with brand X makes me happy.	Brand love scale (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006)	Brands
48. I am happy about my association with brand X	Affirmation and belonging subscale of ethnic identity (Phinney, 1992).	Ethnic identity
49. My association with brand X gives me pleasure.	Emotional value subscale of consumer perceived value (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001)	Consumer durable product at a brand level

50. My association with Brand X enhances my image.	Social self subscale of self expressive band (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006)	Brands
51. My association with brand X enhances the social role I play.	Social self subscale of self expressive band (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006)	Brands
52. My association with brand X has a positive impact on what others think of me.	Social self subscale of self expressive band (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006)	Brands
53. My association with brand X makes a good impression on other people.	Social value subscale of consumer perceived value (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001)	Consumer durable product at a brand level
54. My association with brand X gives me social approval.	Social value subscale of consumer perceived value (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001)	Consumer durable product at a brand level
55. My association with brand X improves the way others view me.	Social self subscale of self expressive band (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006)	Brands
56. My association with brand X improves the way I am perceived by others.	Social value subscale of consumer perceived value (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001)	Consumer durable product at a brand level
57. I believe others respect me for my association with brand X.	Evaluative identification subscale of consumer-brand identification (Lam et al., 2010)	Brands
58. I believe that others admire me for my association with brand X.	Organization based self -esteem subscale of organizational identification (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000)	Organizations
59. I am proud to tell others about my association with brand X.	Identification subscale of organizational commitment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986)	Universities
60. I talk up my association with brand X to my friends as a great brand to identify with.	Identification subscale of organizational commitment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986)	Universities
61. I would rather not to tell people about my association with brand X.	Group self-esteem subscale of social identity (Ellemers et al., 1999)	Groups
62. I am weary of telling people about my association with brand X because of the negative reaction I often receive.	Initial items of identification scale (Stoner et al., 2011)	Organizations & Social Groups
63. My association with brand X is positively judged by others.	Organizational identification scale (Van Dick et al., 2004)	Schools & Banks
64. Others view my association with brand X positively.	Initial items of identification scale (Stoner et al., 2011)	Organizations & Social Groups
65. No one I know likes my association with Brand X.	Initial items of identification scale (Stoner et al., 2011)	Organizations & Social Groups
66. I often regret my association with brand X.	Private regard subscale of ethnic identification (Sellers et al., 1997) In-group affect subscale of social identity (Cameron, 2004) Private subscale of collective self-esteem (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992)	Ethnic identity Universities, Nationalities & Gender Ascribed Groups

67. In general, I'm glad to be associated with Brand X.	In-group affect subscale of social identity (Cameron, 2004) Private subscale of collective self-esteem (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992)	Universities, Nationalities & Gender Ascribed Groups
68. Overall, I often feel that my association with brand X is not worthwhile.	Private subscale of collective self-esteem (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992)	Ascribed Groups
69. I am proud to talk up my association with brand X	Devloped by the author	
70. My association with brand X is a source of pride in my life.	Devloped by the author	
71. Associating with brand X makes me feel special.	Devloped by the author	
Affective Identification		
72. I don't really have too many feelings about brand.	Attachment Scale (Ball & Tasaki, 1992)	Possessions
73. I have no feelings for brand X .	Attachment with possessions scale (Sivadas & Venkatesh, 1995) Consumer-product attachment scale (Schifferstein & Zwartkruis-Pelgrim, 2008)	Possessions Products
74. If someone ridiculed brand X, I would feel irritated	Attachment Scale (Ball & Tasaki, 1992)	Possessions
75. When someone criticizes brand X, it feels like a personal insult.	Organizational identification scale (Mael & Ashforth, 1992)	Colleges
76. If a story in the media criticized brand X, I would feel embarrassed.	Organizational identification scale (Mael & Ashforth, 1992)	Colleges
77. When something bad happens to brand X, I personally feel hurt.	Affective- attachment subscale of identification (Stoner et al., 2011)	Family & Social groups
78. If someone praised brand X, I would feel somewhat praised myself.	Attachment scale (Ball & Tasaki, 1992)	Possessions
79. When someone praises brand X, it feels like a personal compliment.	Organizational identification scale (Mael & Ashforth, 1992)	Colleges
80. I'm very attached to brand X.	Brand love scale (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006) Consumer-product attachment scale (Schifferstein & Zwartkruis-Pelgrim, 2008)	Brands Products
81. 1 feel a strong attachment towards brand X.	Affirmation and belonging subscale of ethnic identity (Phinney, 1992)	Ethnic Identity
82. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to brand X.	Affective commitment subscale of social identity (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000)	
83. I don't feel a sense of being ''connected'' with brand X.	In-group ties subscale of social identity (Cameron, 2004)	Universities, nationalities & gender

84. I feel emotionally connected to brand X.	Consumer-product attachment scale (Schifferstein & Zwartkruis-Pelgrim, 2008)	Products
85. I feel strong ties to brand X.	Belonging & membership subscale of organizational identification (Edwards & Peccei, 2007) In-group ties subscale of social identity (Cameron, 2004)	Non-profit organizations Universities, Nationalities & Gender
86. I would experience an emotional loss if I had to stop using brand X.	Affective identification subscale of consumer-brand identification (Lam et al., 2010)	Brands
87. I would experience an emotional loss if brand X is no longer around.	Devloped by the author	
88. I feel a sense of ownership of brand X rather than just a user.	Identification subscale of organizational commitment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986)	Universities
89. I have a strong sense of belonging to brand X.	Centrality subscale of ethnic identification (Sellers et al., 1997) Affirmation and belonging subscale of ethnic identity (Phinney, 1992)	Black Identity Ethnic Identity
90. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to brand X.	Affective commitment subscale of social identity (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000)	Organizations
91. I have a special bond with brand X	Self-extension tendency scale (Ferraro et al., 2011)	Possessions
92. I find it difficult to form a bond with brand X.	In-group ties subscale of social identity (Cameron, 2004)	Universities, Nationalities & Gender
93. Brand X is very dear to me.	Consumer-product attachment scale (Schifferstein & Zwartkruis-Pelgrim, 2008)	Products
94. Brand X has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	Affective commitment subscale of social identity (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000)	Organizations
95. I have a strong sense of closeness to brand X	Devloped by the author	
96. A negative report in the media about brand X would make feel ashamed.	Devloped by the author	

APPENDIX A2

Checking the Full List of Items against Bad Characteristics

ITEM	Difficult Words	Ambiguous /Vague Words	Leading Questions	Double Barrelled	Lengthy Items	Double Negatives	Specialist Jargons
1. Brand X reminds me of who I am.							
2. Brand X reflects who I am.							
3. I consider Brand X to be "me" (it reflects who I consider myself to be).				Double Barrelled			
4. Brand X is an important reflection of who I am							
5. Brand X is an important indication of who I am.							
6. Brand X says a lot about the kind of person I am.		A lot					
7. I believe that brand X helps me define who I am.							
8. Brand X is part of who I am		Part					
9. I consider Brand X to be part of myself.		Part					
10. Part of me is defined by Brand X		Part					
11. Brand X is a big part of who I am.		Big Part					
12. In general, Brand X is an important part of my self- image.		Part					
13. Brand X is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am (R)							
14.Brand X is central to my identity.							

15. I derive some of my identity from Brand X.		Some					
16. If brand X was not around any longer, I would feel like I had lost a little bit of myself.		Little bit					
17. Without Brand X, I would feel a little bit less like myself.		Little bit less					
18. This brand is part of myself, without, I would feel something is missing.		Part/ Something					
19. Since this brand shows who I am, I would feel empty without it.							
20. If I were describing myself, Brand X would likely be something I would mention.		Something					
21. I often refer to the name of brand X when I introduce myself.		Often					
22. Probably, people who know me might sometimes think of brand X when they think of me.		Sometimes					
23. Brand X says something to other people about who I am.		Something					
24. I (can) use Brand X to communicate who I am to other people.							
25. I can identify with Brand X.							
26. I consider myself a typical user of brand X.	Typical						
27. I don’t act like a typical user of brand X.	Typical						
28. If asked if I am a typical user of brand X, I would say “yes”.	Typical						
29. I represent a typical user of brand X.	Typical						
30. I define myself as a user of brand X.							
31. I often acknowledge the fact that I am typical user of brand X.	Acknowledge the fact	Often					
32. I think it is accurate if I was described as a	Typical						

typical user of brand X.							
33.I feel a personal connection to Brand X.							
34. Brand X suits me well.	Suits						
35. My own sense of who I am (i.e. your personal identity) overlaps with my sense of what [brand] represents (i.e. the [brand]'s identity)?.							Brand Identity
36.Overall, being a brand X user has very little to do with who I am.		Very Little					
37.Brand X and I have a lot in common.		A lot					
38. Brand X shows who I am.							
39. Brand X represents my self- identity.							
40. If brand X is no longer around, I would feel like I lost an important part of my identity.		Part					
41. I am true brand X fan.	True						
42. I believe brand X represents part of me.		Part					
43. Brand X reflects some aspects of my self-identity.		Some					
44. Brand X symbolizes what kind of person I am.	symbolizes						
45. Brand X says a lot about my identity, it is more than just a purchase.		A lot					
46. Brand X fits my self-concept.	Fits						
47. My association with brand X makes me feel good.							
48. My association with brand X makes me happy.							
49.I am happy about my association with brand X.							
50.My association with brand X gives me							

pleasure							
51. Associating with brand X enhances my image.	Enhances						
52. My association with brand X enhances the social role I play.	Enhances						
53. My association with brand X has a positive impact on what others think of me.							
54. Associating with brand X makes a good impression on other people.							
55. Associating with brand X gives me social approval.							
56. My association with brand X improves the way others view me.							
57. My association with brand X improves the way I am perceived by others.							
58. I believe others respect me for my association with brand X.							
59. I believe others admire me for my association with brand X.	Admire						
60. I am proud to tell others about my association with brand X.							
61. I talk up my association with brand X to my friends as a great brand to identify with.	Talk up						
62. I would rather not to tell people about my association with brand X.						Double Negative	
63. I am weary of telling people about my association with brand X because of the negative reaction I often receive.	Weary						
64. My association with brand X is positively judged by others.							
65. Others view my association with brand X positively.							

66. No one I know likes my association with Brand X.							
67. I often regret my association with brand X.							
68. In general, I'm glad to be associated with Brand X.							
69. Overall, I often feel that my association with brand X is not worthwhile.	Worthwhile						
70. I am proud to talk up my association with brand X.	Talk up						
71. My association with brand X is a source of pride in my life.							
72. Associating with brand X makes me feel special.							
73. I don't really have too many feelings about brand X.		Too many					
74. I have no feelings for brand X.							
75. If someone ridiculed brand X, I would feel irritated.	Ridiculed Irritated						
76.When someone criticizes brand X, it feels like a personal insult							
77. If a story in the media criticized brand X, I would feel embarrassed.							
78. When something bad happens to brand X, I personally feel hurt.							
79. If someone praised brand X, I would feel somewhat praised myself.	Praised	Somewhat					
80.When someone praises brand X, it feels like a personal compliment.	Praises						
81.I'm very attached to brand.							
82.I feel a strong attachment towards brand X.							

83.I do not feel emotionally attached to brand X.							
84.I don't feel a sense of being connected with brand X.							
85. I feel emotionally connected to brand X.							
86. I feel strong ties to brand X.							
87. I would experience an emotional loss if I had to stop using brand X.							
88. I would experience an emotional loss if brand X is no longer around.							
89. I feel a sense of ownership of brand X rather than just a user							
90. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to brand X.							
91. I have a special bond with brand X							
92. I find it difficult to form a bond with brand X.							
93.Brand X is very dear to me.	Dear	Very					
94.Brand X has a great deal of personal meaning for me.		Great					
95. I have a strong sense of closeness to brand X.							
96. A negative report in the media about brand X would make feel ashamed.							

APPENDIX A3

Experience Survey for Expert Panel Evaluating Potential Items for Consumer-Brand Identification Construct – Stage 1

Introduction

I am a doctoral student under the supervision of Professor Chanaka Jayawardhena at the Department of Marketing at University of Hull. This survey represents the first step in developing a reliable, valid and parsimonious scale for measuring consumer-brand identification construct. In the context of this research, brands relate to different product categories reflecting variation in terms of symbolic and functional meaning such as sportswear, cell phones, and automobiles. Please consider these types of brands when rating the items below. The survey should take approximately 30 minutes to complete. All responses will be treated in confidence and will be combined with others and used only for research purposes.

Thank you in advance for assisting with this research. Your help is really appreciated. If you have any questions concerning the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me at (07539468703) or email me on a.m.elbedweihy@2011.hull.ac.uk.

Instructions

On the following pages you are given the definition of each dimension of consumer-brand identification construct and a bank of items that can capture the said construct. The task is to read each item carefully and assign it to the dimension that best captures it. It is similar to a matching task where you match the item with the dimension that you believe the item best represents.

The dimensions and their definitions appear in the first column and numbered A to C. Assign 'D' (Not Applicable) if the item cannot be assigned to any of the A-C dimensions. Note that the definitions are repeated on each page to make the task easier. The following example illustrates the task in hand. This example shows that the respondent believes that this item best indicate ***cognitive identification*** dimension and thus the letter ***(A)*** is placed in column two.

A	**Brand X reminds me of who I am.**

Additional remarks relating to item clarity/conciseness are welcome. Please feel free to provide any comments about individual items or suggestions for improving individual items. These can be provided in the comments sections (column four).

Finally, at the end of the questionnaire please note any additional items you feel are important and may help measure consumer–brand identification construct or any other remarks you wish to make. Thank you for your time.

Alaa ElBedweihy

<table>
<tr><th>Dimensions</th><th>Assigned (to)</th><th>Items</th><th>Comments</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="11">A. Cognitive Identification is defined as the consumers' readiness to self-categorize in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept.

B. Evaluative Identification is defined as the extent to which consumers value their association with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people.

C. Emotional identification is defined as the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand.

D. Not Applicable</td><td>A</td><td>Brand X reminds me of who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X reflects who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>My association with brand X makes me feel good.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I don't really have too many feelings about brand X (R).</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I consider Brand X to be “me” (it reflects who I consider myself to be).</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X is an important reflection of who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>My association with brand X makes me happy.</td><td></td></tr>
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<tr><td></td><td>Brand X is an important reflection of who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I am happy about my association with brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>If someone ridiculed brand X, I would feel irritated.</td><td></td></tr>
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C. Emotional identification is defined as the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand.

D. Not Applicable</td><td></td><td>When someone criticizes brand X, it feels like a personal insult.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X is an important indication of who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X says a lot about the kind of person I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I believe that brand X helps me define who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>My association with brand X gives me pleasure.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>If a story in the media criticized brand X, I would feel embarrassed.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X is part of who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Associating with brand X enhances my image.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>My association with brand X enhances the social role I play.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>When something bad happens to brand X, I personally feel hurt.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I consider Brand X to be part of myself.</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

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C. Emotional identification is defined as the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand.

D. Not Applicable</th><th>Assigned (to)</th><th>Items</th><th>Comments</th></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>My association with brand X has a positive impact on what others think of me.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>If someone praised brand X, I would feel somewhat praised myself.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>When someone praises brand X, it feels like a personal compliment.</td><td></td></tr>
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<tr><td></td><td>Brand X is a big part of who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>In general, Brand X is an important part of my self-image.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Associating with brand X makes a good impression on other people.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I am very attached to brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am (R).</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Associating with brand X gives me social approval.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>My association with brand X improves the way others view me.</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Assigned (to)</th><th>Items</th><th>Comments</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="11">A. Cognitive Identification is defined as the consumers' readiness to self-categorize in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept.

B. Evaluative Identification is defined as the extent to which consumers value their association with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people.

C. Emotional identification is defined as the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand.

D. Not Applicable</td><td></td><td>I feel a strong attachment towards brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X is central to my identity.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>My association with brand X improves the way I am perceived by others.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I do not feel emotionally attached to brand X (R).</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I don't feel a sense of being connected with brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I derive some of my identity from Brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>If brand X was not around any longer, I would feel like I had lost a little bit of myself.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Without Brand X, I would feel a little bit less like myself.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I believe others respect me for my association with brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I feel emotionally connected to brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X is part of myself, without, I would feel something is missing.</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

	Assigned (to)	Items	Comments
A. *Cognitive Identification is defined as* *the consumers' readiness to self-categorize in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept.*		I believe others admire me for my association with brand X.	
B. *Evaluative Identification is defined as* *the extent to which consumers value their association with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people.*		I am proud to tell others about my association with brand X.	
C. *Emotional identification is defined as* *the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand.*		I feel strong ties to brand X.	
D. Not Applicable		Since this brand shows who I am, I would feel empty without it.	
		I talk up my association with brand X to my friends as a great brand to identify with.	
		I would experience an emotional loss if I had to stop using brand X.	
		I would experience an emotional loss if brand X is no longer around.	
		If I were describing myself, Brand X would likely be something I would mention.	
		I often refer to the name of brand X when I introduce myself.	
		Probably, people who know me might sometimes think of brand X when they think of me.	
		I would rather not to tell people about my association with brand X (R).	

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Assigned (to)</th><th>Items</th><th>Comments</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="11">A. Cognitive Identification is defined as the consumers' readiness to self-categorize in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept.

B. Evaluative Identification is defined as the extent to which consumers value their association with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people.

C. Emotional identification is defined as the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand.

D. Not Applicable</td><td></td><td>I feel a sense of ownership of brand X rather than just a user.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X says something to other people about who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I am weary of telling people about my association with brand X because of the negative reaction I often receive.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>My association with brand X is positively judged by others.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I have a strong sense of belonging to brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I (can) use Brand X to communicate who I am to other people.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Others view my association with brand X positively.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I have a special bond with brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I can identify with Brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I consider myself a typical user of brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Assigned (to)</th><th>Items</th><th>Comments</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="11">A. Cognitive Identification is defined as the consumers' readiness to self-categorize in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept.

B. Evaluative Identification is defined as the extent to which consumers value their association with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people.

C. Emotional identification is defined as the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand.

D. Not Applicable</td><td></td><td>I don't act like a typical user of brand X (R).</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>No one I know likes my association with Brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I find it difficult to form a bond with brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>If asked if I am a typical user of brand X, I would say "yes".</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I often regret my association with brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>In general, I'm glad to be associated with Brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X is very dear to me.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I represent a typical user of brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Overall, I often feel that my association with brand X is not worthwhile.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X has a great deal of personal meaning for me.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I have a strong sense of closeness to brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="12">A. Cognitive Identification is defined as the consumers' readiness to self-categorize in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept.

B. Evaluative Identification is defined as the extent to which consumers value their association with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people.

C. Emotional identification is defined as the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand.

D. Not Applicable</td><th>Assigned (to)</th><th>Items</th><th>Comments</th></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I define myself as a user of brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I often acknowledge the fact that I am typical user of brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I think it is accurate if I was described as a typical user of brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I am proud to talk up my association with brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>A negative report in the media about brand X would make feel ashamed.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I feel a personal connection to Brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X suits me well.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X reflects some aspects of my self-identity.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>My association with brand X is a source of pride in my life.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Overall, being associated with brand X has very little to do with who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X and I have a lot in common.</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Assigned (to)</th><th>Items</th><th>Comments</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="11">A. Cognitive Identification is defined as the consumers' readiness to self-categorize in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept.

B. Evaluative Identification is defined as the extent to which consumers value their association with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people.

C. Emotional identification is defined as the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand.

D. Not Applicable</td><td></td><td>Brand X shows who I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Associating with brand X makes me feel special.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X represents my self- identity.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>If brand X is no longer around, I would feel like I lost an important part of my identity.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>In general, others respect individuals for their association with brand X.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I am true brand X fan.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>I believe brand X represents part of me.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>My own sense of who I am (i.e., your personal identity) overlap with my sense of what brand represents (i.e., the [brand]'s identity).</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X symbolizes what kind of person I am.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X says a lot about my identity, it is more than just a purchase.</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Brand X fits my self-concept.</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

Additional Comments and Suggestions

Please suggest any additional items or comments that you feel are important and may help measure consumer–brand identification construct and feel free to add any other points you wish to make (use as much space as required). Your comments are greatly appreciated. Thank you again for your time.

APPENDIX A4

Experience Survey for Expert Panel Evaluating Potential Items for Consumer-Brand Identification Construct - Stage2

Introduction

I am a doctoral student under the supervision of Professor Chanaka Jayawardhena at University of Hull Business School. This survey represents the first step in developing a reliable, valid and parsimonious scale for measuring consumer-brand identification construct. In the context of this research, brands relate to different product categories reflecting variation in terms of symbolic and functional meaning such as sportswear, cell phones, and automobiles. Please consider these types of brands when rating the items below. The survey should take approximately 15 minutes. All responses will be treated in confidence and will be combined with others and used only for academic research purposes.

Thank you in advance for assisting with this research. Your help is really appreciated. If you have any questions concerning the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me at (07539468703) or email me on a.m.elbedweihy@2011.hull.ac.uk.

Instructions

On the following pages you are given the definition of each dimension of consumer-brand identification construct and a bank of items that can capture the said construct. The task is to read each item carefully and indicate the extent to which each item represents the dimension's definition and domain. Please put an "X" beside the most appropriate number for your response. Note that the dimension's definition provides the basis of your evaluation. See example on the first row in the next page.

Additional remarks relating to item clarity/conciseness are welcome. Please feel free to provide any comments about individual items or suggestions for improving individual items. These can be provided in the comments column.

Finally, at the end of the questionnaire please note any additional items you feel are important and may help measure consumer–brand identification construct or any other remarks you wish to make.

Thank you for your time.
Alaa ElBedweihy

Cognitive Identification is defined as *the consumers' readiness to self-categorize in terms of a particular brand determined by the extent to which it is perceived as relevant and important to their self–concept.*

Example

Items	**Not Representative**	**Somewhat Representative**	**Clearly Representative**	**Comments**
Brand X reminds me of who I am.	1	2 **X**	3	
Brand X reflects who I am.	1	2	3	
I consider Brand X to be like a part of me.	1	2	3	
Brand X says a lot about the kind of person I am.	1	2	3	
I believe that brand X helps me define who I am.	1	2	3	
In general, Brand X is an important part of my self-image.	1	2	3	
Brand X is central to my identity.	1	2	3	
Brand X is part of who I am.	1	2	3	
I identify with Brand X.	1	2	3	
Brand X is an important reflection of who I am.	1	2	3	
I derive some of my identity from Brand X.	1	2	3	
I consider Brand X to be part of myself.	1	2	3	
Brand X is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am.	1	2	3	
Brand X has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	
Brand X shows who I am.	1	2	3	
I often refer to the name of brand X when I introduce myself.	1	2	3	
Brand X reflects some aspects of my self-identity.	1	2	3	

Items	Not Representative	Somewhat Representative	Clearly Representative	Comments
Brand X is a big part of who I am.	1	2	3	
Brand X and I have a lot in common.	1	2	3	
Brand X represents my self- identity.	1	2	3	
Brand X is an important indication of who I am.	1	2	3	
If I were describing myself, Brand X would likely be something I would mention.	1	2	3	
Brand X says a lot about my identity, it is more than just a purchase.	1	2	3	
I believe brand X represents part of me.	1	2	3	
Brand X fits my self-concept.	1	2	3	
I am a true brand X fan because it reflects an important part of who I am.	1	2	3	
Brand X symbolizes what kind of person I am.	1	2	3	
If brand X is no longer around, I would think like I lost an important part of my identity.	1	2	3	
Overall, brand X has very little to do with who I am.	1	2	3	
Part of me is defined by Brand X.	1	2	3	
Evaluative Identification is defined as *the extent to which consumers value their association9 with the brand and the perceived evaluations placed on this association by other people.*				
I feel good about my association with brand X.	1	2	3	
Associating with brand X gives me social approval.	1	2	3	
I am proud to tell others about my association with brand X.	1	2	3	

Items	Not Representative	Somewhat Representative	Clearly Representative	Comments
No one I know likes my association with Brand X.	1	2	3	
Associating with brand X makes a good impression on other people.	1	2	3	
My association with brand X makes me happy.	1	2	3	
I believe others respect me for my association with brand X.	1	2	3	
I talk up my association with brand X to my friends as a great brand to be identified with.	1	2	3	
My association with brand X improves the way others view me.	1	2	3	
Overall, I often feel that my association with brand X is not worthwhile.	1	2	3	
I am glad to be associated with brand X.	1	2	3	
I would rather not to tell people about my association with brand X.	1	2	3	
My association with brand X improves the way I am perceived by others.	1	2	3	
My association with brand X gives me pleasure.	1	2	3	
Others view my association with brand X positively.	1	2	3	
I am weary of telling people about my association with brand X because of the negative reaction I often receive.	1	2	3	
I think brand X has little to be proud of.	1	2	3	
I believe others admire me for my association with brand X.	1	2	3	
Associating with brand X makes me feel special.	1	2	3	
My association with brand X is positively judged by others.	1	2	3	

Items	Not Representative	Somewhat Representative	Clearly Representative	Comments
I am proud to talk up my association with brand X.	1	2	3	
In general, others respect individuals for their association with brand X.	1	2	3	
I have little respect for brand X.	1	2	3	
Emotional identification is defined as *the extent to which consumers feel a sense of emotional attachment toward the brand and their emotional responses toward others' evaluations of the brand.*				
I do not really have too many feelings about brand X.	1	2	3	
If someone ridiculed brand X, I would feel irritated.	1	2	3	
I am very attached to brand X.	1	2	3	
I would experience an emotional loss if I had to stop using brand X.	1	2	3	
When something bad happens to brand X, I personally feel hurt.	1	2	3	
I do not feel a sense of being connected with brand X.	1	2	3	
I find it difficult to form a bond with brand X.	1	2	3	
I have a strong sense of belonging to brand X.	1	2	3	
When someone criticizes brand X, it feels like a personal insult.	1	2	3	
I feel emotionally connected to brand X.	1	2	3	
Brand X is very dear to me.	1	2	3	
I would experience an emotional loss if brand X is no longer around.	1	2	3	

Items	**Not Representative**	**Somewhat Representative**	**Clearly Representative**	**Comments**
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to brand X.	1	2	3	
I have a special bond with brand X.	1	2	3	
If a story in the media criticized brand X, I would feel embarrassed.	1	2	3	
I do not feel emotionally attached to brand X.	1	2	3	
I have a strong sense of closeness to brand X.	1	2	3	
I have no feelings for brand X.	1	2	3	
A negative report in the media about brand X would make feel ashamed.	1	2	3	
I feel a personal connection to Brand X.	1	2	3	

Additional Comments and Suggestions

Please suggest any additional items or comments that you feel are important and may help measure consumer–brand identification construct and feel free to add any other points you wish to make (use as much space as required). Your comments are greatly appreciated. Thank you again for your time.

APPENDIX B1
Product Categories and Brands Pretest

Thank you for taking part in this research. I am a doctoral student under the supervision of Professor Chanaka Jayawardhena at University of Hull Business School. This survey is a part of my research project examining consumers' relationships with brands. I am kindly requesting your participation, which will involve filling out this online survey. This short survey (only 2 pages long) should take no more than 5 minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong answers, so answer the questions as honestly as you can.

All responses you provide will be treated in confidence and will be combined with others and used only for academic research purposes. If you have any questions concerning the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me via a.m.elbedweihy@2011.hull.ac.uk.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Alaa ElBedweihy
Doctoral Researcher
Hull University Business School
University of Hull, Hull
HU6 7RX
UK

* Having read the above, by clicking on the "I Agree" button below, I am giving my informed consent to participate in this survey.

○ I agree

* **INSTRUCTIONS:** Please select the most appropriate response that best indicates the extent to which you are **familiar** with **each** of the following product categories.

	Not at all familiar	**Slightly familiar**	**Moderately familiar**	**Very familiar**	**Extremely familiar**
Backpacks	○	○	○	○	○
Tablet PCs	○	○	○	○	○
Laptops	○	○	○	○	○
Beers	○	○	○	○	○
Jeans	○	○	○	○	○
Mobile Phones	○	○	○	○	○
Cars	○	○	○	○	○
Fragrances	○	○	○	○	○
Athletic Shoes	○	○	○	○	○
Watches	○	○	○	○	○

INSTRUCTIONS: From the above list, please select **four** product categories you are **most familiar** with. For **each** product category chosen, please list **one** major well-known brand that is considered to be relatively **symbolic** (i.e. helps an individual to express his/her identity, values, personality, lifestyle, or social groups) and **one** major well-known brand that is considered to be relatively **utilitarian** (i.e. focus more on performance, functionality, durability).

* Product category chosen (1)
* Symbolic Brand
* Utilitarian Brand
* Product category chosen (2)
* Symbolic Brand
* Utilitarian Brand
* Product category chosen (3)
* Symbolic Brand
* Utilitarian Brand
* Product category chosen (4)
* Symbolic Brand
* Utilitarian Brand

CONGRATULATIONS! THIS IS THE LAST PAGE!

INSTRUCTIONS: The following information is needed for **classification purposes only**. For **each** item, please click the appropriate response.

* Your gender

Female   Male

* Your Age

18 - 25   26 - 35   36 - 45

46 - 55   56 - 65   66 or more

* What is your annual income?

$20,000 or less $20,001 - $40,000 $40,001 - $60,000

$60,001 - $80,000 $80,001 - $100,000   More than $100,000

* What is the highest level of completed education?

Less than a high school graduate   High school graduate

Undergraduate degree (Bachelor's   Postgraduate degree (Master's or doctoral degree)

APPENDIX B2

Questionnaire Used in the Pilot Study – Scale Development Study (1st Sample)

Consumer-Brand Relationship Survey

UNIVERSITY OF Hull

Thank you for taking part in this research. I am a doctoral student under the supervision of Professor Chanaka Jayawardhena at University of Hull Business School. This survey is a part of my research project examining consumers' relationships with brands. I would be extremly thankful if you would take little time to fill out this online survey.

It should take approximately 25-30 minutes to complete.There are no right or wrong answers, so answer the questions as honestly and accurately as you can.Please answer **ALL** of the questions even though you will notice that some statements are very similar.This is deliberate and is needed for rigour.

All responses you provide will be treated in confidence and will be combined with others and used only for academic research purposes. If you have any questions concerning the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me via a.m.elbedweihy@2011.hull.ac.uk.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Alaa ElBedweihy
Doctoral Researcher
Hull University Business School
University of Hull
Hull
HU6 7RX

If there is anything that is not clear in the introduction or something missing that needs to be added, please comment below. We also welcome comments on font size, type, shape, colour...etc

Having read the above, by clicking on the " I Agree" button below, I am giving my informed consent to particpate in this survey.

○ I agree

Next

0% 100%

Please circle the appropriate response for each item below.

	Please indicate the extent to which you are <u>familiar</u> with Apple Laptops.					Are you a user of this brand ?		If there is anything that is not clear regarding the instructions and scale responses, please comment below. We also welcome comments on font size, type, shape, colour ....etc
	Not at all Familiar	Slightly Familiar	Moderately Familiar	Very Familiar	Extremely Familiar	Yes	No	Your comment
Apple Laptops	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	

Next

0% 100%

Please circle the appropriate response for each item below.

	Please indicate the extent to which you are <u>familiar</u> with BMW cars.					Are you a user of this brand ?	
	Not at all Familiar	Slightly Familiar	Moderately Familiar	Very Familiar	Extremely Familiar	Yes	No
BMW Cars	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Next

0% 100%

YOU ARE OFF TO A GREAT START ! KEEP GOING !

Now, I would like to know your impressions of these two different brands (Apple, BMW). There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer the questions as honestly and accurately as you can.

Please indicate the relationship you think you would have with each brand by circling the most appropriate response.

	Apple Laptops							BMW Cars						
	Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree
I consider brand X to be like a part of me.														
In general, brand X is an important part of my self-image.														
Brand X and I have a lot in common.														
Brand X has a great deal of personal meaning for me.														
Brand X symbolizes what kind of person I am.														
If someone ridiculed brand X, I would feel irritated.														
I am proud to tell others about my association with brand X.														
I am very attached to brand X.														
I would experience an emotional loss if I had to stop using brand X														
Associating with brand X gives me social approval.														
I talk up my association with brand X to my friends as a great brand to be identified with.														
I identify with brand X.														
I do not really have too many feelings about brand X.														
Others view my association with brand X positively.														
I have a strong sense of belonging to brand X.														
I feel good about my association with brand X.														
I am glad to be associated with brand X.														

If there is anything that is not clear in the instructions, scale, and items, please comment below. We also welcome any suggestions or remarks for improving items.

Next

0% 100%

YOU ARE OVER HALF WAY THERE PLEASE CONTINUE AS YOUR ANSWERS ARE IMPORTANT TO US!

For each item below, please circle the most appropriate response that best describes your opinions about each brand (Apple, BMW) .

	Apple Laptops							BMW Cars						
	Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree
Brand X reflects some aspects of my self-identity.														
My association with brand X gives me pleasure.														
Brand X says a lot about my identity, it is more than just a purchase.														
I do not feel a sense of being connected with brand X.														
Brand X says a lot about the kind of person I am.														
I believe that brand X helps me define who I am.														
Brand X is central to my identity.														
Brand X is very dear to me.														
Brand X shows who I am.														
My association with brand X improves the way others view me.														
I believe others respect me for my association with brand X.														
A negative report in the media about brand X would make feel ashamed.														
I find it difficult to form a bond with brand X.														
My association with brand X improves the way I am perceived by others.														
I am a true brand X fan because it reflects an important part of who I am														
I would experience an emotional loss if brand X is no longer around.														

If there is anything that is not clear in the instructions, scale, and items, please comment below. We also welcome any suggestions or remarks for improving items.

Next

0% 100%

HANG IN THERE ! YOU ARE NEARING THE FINISH LINE

Now, I would like to know your attitude toward these two different brands (Apple, BMW). Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each item by circling the most appropriate response.

	Apple Laptops							BMW Cars						
	Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree
I believe others admire me for my association with brand X.														
In general, others respect individuals for their association with brand X.														
I feel emotionally connected to brand X.														
I am weary of telling people about my association with brand X because of the negative reaction I often receive.														
I do not feel emotionally attached to brand X.														
My association with brand X is positively judged by others														
Brand X reflects who I am														
If a story in the media criticized brand X, I would feel embarrassed.														
My association with brand X makes me happy.														
I have a special bond with brand X.														
I have a strong sense of closeness to brand X.														
Brand X represents my self-identity.														
Associating with brand X makes a good impression on other people.														
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to brand X.														
Brand X fits my self-concept.														
I feel a personal connection to brand X.														

If there is anything that is not clear in the instructions, scale, and items, please comment below. We also welcome any suggestions or remarks for improving items.

Next

0% 100%

CONGRATULATIONS! THIS IS THE LAST PAGE!

In the next few questions, we need to know a little bit about you. Please circle the most appropriite response to each item below.

	Strongly Disgree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I daydream a lot.	○	○	○	○	○
When I go to the movies I find it easy to lose myself in the film.	○	○	○	○	○
I often think of what might have been.	○	○	○	○	○

If there is anything that is not clear in the instructions, scale, and items, please comment below. We also welcome any suggestions or remarks for improving items.

The following information is needed for <u>classification purposes only</u>. For <u>each</u> item, please click the appropriate response.

Your gender

○ Male ○ Female

Your age

○ 18-25 ○ 36-45 ○ 56-65
○ 26-35 ○ 46-55 ○ 66 or more

What is your annual income?

○ $20,000 or less ○ $40,001 - $60,000 ○ $80,001 - $100,000
○ $20,001 - $40,000 ○ $60,001 - $80,000 ○ More than $100,000

What is your highest level of completed education?

○ Less than a high school graduate ○ Undergraduate degree (Bachelor's degree)
○ High school graduate ○ Postgraduate degree (Master's or doctoral degree)

Please provide your worker ID.

If there is anything that is not clear in the questions and response categories, please comment below.

Please provide your feedback on the following points.

	Your comments
	Your comments
What are your impressions of the motivational statements (e.g. YOU ARE OFF TO A GREAT START!KEEP GOING!)?	
Lack of spacing, crowded horizontal design	
Do you think numbering the questions is better?	
Do you think reducing the number of statements in each table and consequently increasing the number of tables is better?	
Do you think enabling "save and continue" option is a good idea?	
Other comments for improving the content and layout of this questionnaire.	

Thank you very much for your help with the survey.

Next

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APPENDIX B3
Questionnaire Used in the Main Study – Scale Development Study (1st Sample)

Consumer-Brand Relationship Survey

UNIVERSITY OF Hull

Thank you for taking part in this research. I am a doctoral student under the supervision of Professor Chanaka Jayawardhena at University of Hull Business School. This survey is a part of my research project examining consumers' relationships with brands. I would be extremely thankful if you would take little time to fill out this online survey.

It should take approximately **10-15** minutes to complete.There are no right or wrong answers, so answer the questions as honestly and accurately as you can.Please answer **ALL** of the questions even though you will notice that some statements are very similar.This is deliberate and is needed for rigour.

All responses you provide will be treated in confidence and will be combined with others and used only for academic research purposes. If you have any questions concerning the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me via a.m.elbedweihy@2011.hull.ac.uk.

Please note that it will be difficult to complete this survey using a tablet.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Alaa ElBedweihy
Doctoral Researcher
Hull University Business School
University of Hull
Hull

Having read the above, by clicking on the " I Agree" button below, I am giving my informed consent to participate in this survey.

○ I agree

Next

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Please circle the appropriate response for each item below.

	Please indicate the extent to which you are <u>familiar</u> with Apple Laptops.					Do you currently use/own apple laptop?	
	Not at all Familiar	Slightly Familiar	Moderately Familiar	Very Familiar	Extremely Familiar	Yes	No
Apple Laptops	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Next

0% 100%

Please circle the appropriate response for each item below.

	Please indicate the extent to which you are <u>familiar</u> with BMW cars.					Do you currently use/own BMW car?	
	Not at all Familiar	Slightly Familiar	Moderately Familiar	Very Familiar	Extremely Familiar	Yes	No
BMW Cars	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Next

0% 100%

You are off to a great start! Keep going!

Now, I would like to know your impressions of these two different brands (Apple, BMW). There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer the questions as honestly and accurately as you can.

Please indicate the relationship you think you would have with each brand by circling the most appropriate response.

	Apple Laptops							BMW Cars						
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would experience an emotional loss if I had to stop using this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Associating with this brand gives me social approval.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand symbolizes what kind of person I am.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel good about my association with this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand and I have a lot in common.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
If someone ridiculed this brand, I would feel irritated.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I talk up my association with this brand to my friends as a great brand to be identified with.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am glad to be associated with this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do not really have too many feelings about this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

For each item below, please circle the most appropriate response that best describes your opinions about each brand (Apple, BMW).

	Apple Laptops							BMW Cars						
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I consider this brand to be like a part of me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand .	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I identify with this brand .	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In general, this brand is an important part of my self-image.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Others view my association with this brand positively.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would experience an emotional loss if this brand is no longer around.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am very attached to this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand says a lot about the kind of person I am.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have a strong sense of belonging to this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do not feel a sense of being connected with this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Next

0% 100%

You are over half way there Please continue as your answers are important to us!

Now, I would like to understand your attitude toward these two different brands (Apple, BMW). ***Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each item by circling the most appropriate response.***

	Apple Laptops							BMW Cars						
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I find it difficult to form a bond with this brand.														
This brand is central to my identity.														
I believe this brand helps me define who I am.														
This brand says a lot about my identity, it is more than just a purchase.														
My association with this brand improves the way others view me.														
A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.														
I am a true fan of this brand because it reflects an important part of who I am.														
My association with this brand gives me pleasure.														
This brand shows who I am.														
I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.														

Please indicate the relationship you think you would have with each brand (Apple, BMW) by circling the most appropriate response.

	Apple Laptops							BMW Cars						
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.														
To ensure that participants are reading the questions, please select "strongly disagree".														
Associating with this brand makes a good impression on other people.														
I am weary of telling people about my association with this brand because of the negative reaction I often receive.														
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this brand.														
If a story in the media criticized this brand, I would feel embarrassed.														
This brand represents my self-identity.														
I feel emotionally connected to this brand.														
This brand is very dear to me.														
My association with this brand makes me happy.														
This brand reflects some aspects of my self-identity.														

Next

0% 100%

Hang in there! You are nearing the finish line

For each item below, please circle the most appropriate response that best describes your opinions about each brand (Apple, BMW).

	Apple Laptops							BMW Cars						
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I believe others admire me for my association with this brand.														
My association with this brand is positively judged by others.														
I do not feel emotionally attached to this brand.														
I have a special bond with this brand.														
This brand reflects who I am.														
This brand fits my self-concept.														
I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.														
Associating with this brand makes me feel special.														
In general, others respect individuals for their association with this brand.														
I feel a personal connection to this brand.														

Thinking about the Apple laptop, please indicate your overall feelings or impressions by circling the most appropriate response.

Dislike								Like
Bad								Good
Negative								Positive

Thinking about the BMW car, please indicate your overall feelings or impressions by circling the most appropriate response.

Bad								Good
Dislike								Like
Negative								Positive

Next

0% 100%

Congratulations! This is the last page!

In the next few questions, we need to know a little bit about you. Please circle the most appropriate response to each item below.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I daydream a lot.	○	○	○	○	○
I often think of what might have been.	○	○	○	○	○
When I go to the movies I find it easy to lose myself in the film.	○	○	○	○	○

The following information is needed for <u>classification purposes only</u>. For <u>each</u> item, please click the appropriate response.

Your gender

○ Male ○ Female

Your age

○ 18-25 ○ 36-45 ○ 56-65
○ 26-35 ○ 46-55 ○ 66 or more

What is your annual income?

○ $20,000 or less ○ $40,001 - $60,000 ○ $80,001 - $100,000
○ $20,001 - $40,000 ○ $60,001 - $80,000 ○ More than $100,000

What is your highest level of completed education?

○ Less than a high school graduate ○ Undergraduate degree (Bachelor's degree)
○ High school graduate ○ Postgraduate degree (Master's or doctoral degree)

Please provide your worker ID.

Thank you very much for your help with the survey.

Next

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APPENDIX B4

Questionnaire Used in the Pilot Study – Initial Validation Study (2nd Sample)

Consumer-Brand Relationship Survey

UNIVERSITY OF Hull

Thank you for taking part in this research. I am a doctoral student under the supervision of Professor Chanaka Jayawardhena at University of Hull Business School. This survey is a part of my research project examining consumers' relationships with brands. I would be extremely thankful if you would take little time to fill out this online survey.

It should take approximately **10-15** minutes to complete.There are no right or wrong answers, so answer the questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Please answer **ALL** of the questions even though you will notice that some statements are very similar.This is deliberate and is needed for rigour.

All responses you provide will be treated in confidence and will be combined with others and used only for academic research purposes. If you have any questions concerning the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me via a.m.elbedweihy@2011.hull.ac.uk.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Alaa ElBedweihy
Doctoral Researcher
Hull University Business School
University of Hull
UK

If there is anything that is not clear in the introduction or something missing that needs to be added, please comment below. We also suggestions regarding font size, type, or colour.

Having read the above, by clicking on the " I Agree" button below, I am giving my informed consent to participate in this survey.

○ I agree

Please indicate the extent to which you are familiar with Skechers athletic shoes.

Not at all familiar	Slightly familiar	Moderately familiar	Very familiar	Extremely familiar
○	○	○	○	○

>>

0% 100%

You are off to a great start ! Keep going !

There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer the questions as honestly and accurately as you can. I would like to know YOUR degree of involvement or interest in athletic shoes in general. For each item below, please click the most appropriate response.

Athletic shoes are ....

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Irrelevant to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Relevant to me
Insignificant to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Significant to me
Unimportant to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Important to me
Means nothing to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Means alot to me
Useless to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Useful to me
Of no concern to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Of concern to me

For the following items, please click the appropriate response that best describes your attitudes and opinions about Skechers athletic shoes.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I trust this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel good when I use this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand is central to my identity.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
What this brand stands for is important to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand makes me happy.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand and I share the same basic values.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I rely on this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand will always remind me of a particular phase of my life.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I will stay with this brand though good times and bad.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent to which the following words describe your typical feelings toward Skechers athletic shoes by circling the most appropriate response.

	Not at all	Slightly	Somewhat	Neutral	Moderately	Very	Extremely well
Delighted	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Affectionate	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Passionate	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Connected	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Captivated	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Loved	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Take a moment to think about Skechers athletic shoes. Describe this brand using personality characteristics such as reliable, smooth, etc. Now think about how you see yourself (your actual self). What kind of person are you? How would you describe your personality? Once you have done this, indicate your agreement or disagreement to the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The personality of this brand is consistent with how I see myself (my actual self).	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The personality of this brand is a mirror image of me (my actual self).	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

If there is anything that is not clear in the instructions, scale, and items, please comment below. We also welcome any suggestions or remarks for improving items.

>>

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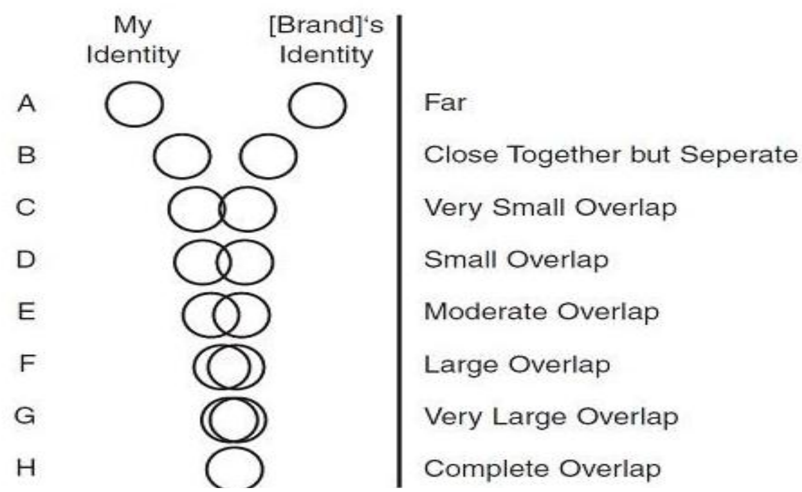
The following questions give us an indication about your feelings and opinions toward Skechers athletic shoes. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the most appropriate answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My experiences with this brand have always been pleasant.							
I consider this brand to be like a part of me.							
Compared to other brands, I am very satisfied with this brand.							
This brand would be my first choice.							
My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.							
I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand.							
I will not buy other brands if this brand is available at the store.							
I know a lot about this brand.							
I would experience an emotional loss if this brand is no longer around.							
I consider myself to be loyal to this brand.							

Please indicate the relationship you think you would have with Skechers athletic shoes by circling the most appropriate response.

	Not at all	Slightly	Somewhat	Neutral	Moderately	Very	Extremely well
I think this brand (could) help(s) me become the type of person I want to be.							
This brand suits me well.							
I consider this brand to be me.							
My thoughts and feelings toward this brand are often automatic, coming to mind seemingly on their own.							
If you read this item, please select "Very".							
This brand reflects who I am.							
I feel a personal connection to this brand.							

Imagine that the circles at the left in each represents your personal identity and the other circle at the right represents Skechers athletic shoes identity. Please indicate which case (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, or H) best describes the level of overlap between your own and Skechers identity.



Your answer

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H

For the following items, please click the appropriate response that best describes your attitude and opinions about Skechers athletic shoes.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Associating with this brand gives me social approval.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand reflects some aspects of my self-identity.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand is an honest brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand is safe.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In general, my personal values and the values represented by this brand are similar.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel that my personal values are a good fit with this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have a strong sense of closeness to this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand treats me like a valued customer.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
No other brand can quite take the place of this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand gives me pleasure.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

If there is anything that is not clear in the instructions, scale, and items, please comment below. We also welcome any suggestions or remarks for improving items.

>>

0% 100%

You are over half way there Please continue as you answers are important to us !

Now, I would like to know more about your feelings and opinions toward Skechers athletic shoes. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the most appropriate answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.							
Based on all my experience with this brand, I am very satisfied.							
I feel like something's missing when I have not used the brand in a while.							
The brand reminds me of who I am.							
If a story in the media criticized this brand, I would feel embarrassed.							
I am glad to be associated with this brand.							
In general, this brand is an important part of my self-image.							
This is a wonderful brand.							
I have a strong sense of belonging to this brand.							

Take a moment to think about Skechers athletic shoes. Describe this brand using personality characteristics such as reliable, smooth, etc. Now think about how you would like to see yourself (your ideal self). What kind of person would you like to be? Once you've done this, indicate your agreement or disagreement to the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The personality of this brand is consistent with how I would like to be (my ideal self).							
The personality of this brand is a mirror image of the person I would like to be (my ideal self).							

For each item below, please circle the appropriate response that best describes your relationship with Skechers athletic shoes.

	Not at all	Slightly	Somewhat	Neutral	Moderately	Very	Extremely well
To ensure that participants are reading the questions, please select "Somewhat".							
My thoughts and feelings toward this brand come to my mind naturally and instantly.							
This brand is part of me and who I am.							
I (can) use this brand to communicate who I am to other people.							
I can identify with this brand.							

Please rate the following items in relation to your attitudes and opinions about Skechers athletic shoes.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand reminds me of things I've done or places I've been.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would be very upset if I couldn't find this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have a special bond with this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am a true fan of this brand because it reflects an important part of who I am.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel good about my association with this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand shows who I am.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel very loyal to this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My association with this brand improves the way others view me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I consider this brand to be like a part of me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

If there is anything that is not clear in the instructions, scale, and items, please comment below. We also welcome any suggestions or remarks for improving items.

>>

0% 100%

Hang in there ! You are nearing the finish line

Please click the appropriate response that best describes your feelings and opinions about Skechers athletic shoes.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The brand's and my self-image are similar.							
I love this brand.							
I know a lot about the company that makes this brand.							
This brand plays an important role in my life.							
I am passionate about this brand.							
I am committed to this brand.							
I stick with this brand because I know it is the best for me.							
This brand is a delight.							
I know this brand really appreciates me.							
I am really attached to this brand.							
This brand makes me feel good.							

Please indicate to what extent does your own sense of who you are (i.e. personal identity) overlap with your sense of what Skechers athletic shoes represents (i.e. brand's identity]?

Not at all	Slightly	Somewhat	Neutral	Moderately	Very	Extremely

Please indicate your opinions regarding Skechers athletic shoes by circling the most appropriate response.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Bad								Good
Negative								Positive
Dislike								Like

Please rate the following items in relation to your attitudes and opinions about Skechers athletic shoes.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.							
This brand's successes are my successes.							
When I talk about this brand, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.							
When someone criticizes this brand, it feels like a personal insult.							
I am very interested in what others think about this brand.							
I have tried to answer all of the questions honestly and accurately.							

If there is anything that is not clear in the instructions, scale, and items, please comment below. We also welcome any suggestions or remarks for improving items.

>>

0% 100%

Congratulations! This is the last page!

In the next few questions, we need to know a little bit about you. Please circle the most appropriate response to each item below.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I often think of what might have been.	○	○	○	○	○
I daydream a lot.	○	○	○	○	○
When I go to the movies I find it easy to lose myself in the film.	○	○	○	○	○

The following information is needed for <u>classification purposes only</u>. For <u>each</u> item, please click the appropriate response.

Your gender

○ Male ○ Female

Your age

○ 18-25 ○ 36-45 ○ 56-65

○ 26-35 ○ 46-55 ○ 66 or more

What is your annual income?

○ $20,000 or less ○ $40,001 - $60,000 ○ $80,001 - $100,000

○ $20,001 - $40,000 ○ $ 60,001 - $80,000 ○ More than $100,000

What is your highest level of completed education?

○ Less than a high school graduate ○ Undergraduate degree (Bachelor's degree)

○ High school graduate ○ Postgraduate degree (Master's or doctoral degree)

Please provide your worker ID.

If there is anything that is not clear in the questions or response categories, please comment below.

Please provide your feedback on the following points.

	Your comments below
What are your impression of the motivational statements (e.g. You are off to a great start ! Keep going !)?	
Do you think numbering the questions is better?	
Do you think reducing the number of questions per page and consequently increasing the number of pages is a good idea?	
Do you think enabling "save and continue" option is a good idea?	
What do you think about the length of the survey?	
On average, how many minutes respondents may need to complete the survey?	
Other comments for improving the content and layout of this survey.	

Thank you very much for your help with the survey.

>>

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APPENDIX B5

Questionnaire Used in the Main Study – Initial Validation Study (2nd Sample)

Consumer-Brand Relationship Survey

UNIVERSITY OF Hull

Thank you for taking part in this research. I am a doctoral student under the supervision of Professor Chanaka Jayawardhena at the University of Hull Business School. This survey is a part of my research project examining consumers' relationships with brands. I would be extremely thankful if you would take a little time to fill out this online survey.

It should take approximately **10-15** minutes to complete.There are no right or wrong answers, so answer the questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Please answer **ALL** of the questions even though you will notice that some statements are very similar.This is deliberate and is needed for rigour.

All responses you provide are confidential and will be combined with others and used only for academic research purposes. If you have any questions concerning this research study, or if you would like to get more information, please get in touch (a.m.elbedweihy@2011.hull.ac.uk).

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Alaa ElBedweihy
Doctoral Researcher
Hull University Business School
University of Hull
Hull
HU6 7RX
UK

Having read the above, by clicking on the " I Agree" button below, I am giving my informed consent to participate in this survey.

I agree

Please select the brand you are most familiar with.

Nike athletic shoes	Skechers athletic shoes	Budweiser beer	Guinness beer	None of them

>>

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For each item below, please click the appropriate response that best describes your knowledge of Skechers athletic shoes.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not at all informed								Highly informed
Very unfamiliar								Very familiar
Know nothing at all								Know a great deal

>>

0% 100%

You are off to a great start ! Keep going !

There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer the questions as honestly and accurately as you can.

I would like to know YOUR degree of involvement or interest in beer in general. For each item below, please click the most appropriate response.

Athletic shoes is ....

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Of no concern to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Of concern to me
Insignificant to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Significant to me
Irrelevant to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Relevant to me
Useless to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Useful to me
Unimportant to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Important to me
Means nothing to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Means alot to me

For the following items, please click the appropriate response that best describes your attitudes and opinions about <u>Skechers athletic shoes</u>.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand is competent.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand is trustworthy.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand and I share the same basic values.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
What this brand stands for is important to me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand is central to my identity.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
A negative report in the media about this brand would make me feel ashamed.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand makes me happy.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I will stay with this brand through good times and bad.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel good when I use this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the extent to which the following words describe your typical feelings toward <u>Skechers athletic shoes</u> by circling the most appropriate response.

	Not at all 1	2	3	4	5	6	Extremely 7
Captivated	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Delighted	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Loved	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Affectionate	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Connected	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Passionate	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Take a moment to think about Skechers athletic shoes. Describe this brand using personality characteristics such as reliable, smooth, etc.

Now think about how you see yourself (your actual self). What kind of person are you? How would you describe your personality? Once you have done this, indicate your agreement or disagreement to the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The personality of this brand is a mirror image of me (my actual self).							
The personality of this brand is consistent with how I see myself (my actual self).							

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The following questions give us an indication about your feelings and opinions toward Skechers athletic shoes. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the most appropriate answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would experience an emotional loss if this brand is no longer around.							
I will not buy other brands if this brand is available at the store.							
Compared to other brands, I am very satisfied with this brand.							
My association with this brand improves the way I am perceived by others.							
My experiences with this brand have always been pleasant.							
This brand would be my first choice.							
I consider myself to be loyal to this brand.							
I know a lot about this brand.							
I am proud to tell others about my association with this brand.							
If this brand was criticized, it would influence how							

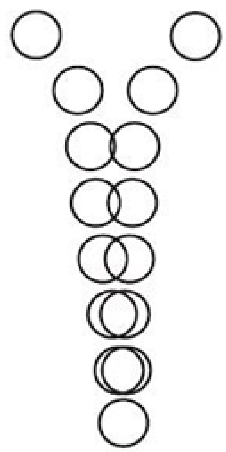
Please indicate the relationship you think you have with Skechers athletic shoes by circling the most appropriate response.

	Not at all 1	2	3	4	5	6	Extremely 7
I feel a personal connection to this brand.							
This brand reflects who I am.							
I think this brand (could) help(s) me become the type of person I want to be.							
If you read this item, please select " Not at all " as a response to this question.							
My thoughts and feelings toward this brand are often automatic, coming to mind seemingly on their own.							
This brand suits me well.							
I consider this brand to be me.							

Imagine that the circles at the left in each represents your personal identity and the other circle at the right represents Skechers athletic shoes identity.

Please indicate which case (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, or H) best describes the level of overlap between your own and with Skechers athletic shoes.

Click to write Column 1



	My Identity / [Brand]'s Identity	
A		Far
B		Close Together but Seperate
C		Very Small Overlap
D		Small Overlap
E		Moderate Overlap
F		Large Overlap
G		Very Large Overlap
H		Complete Overlap

Your answer

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H

For the following items, please click the appropriate response that best describes your attitude and opinions about Skechers athletic shoes.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand is very responsive to customers.							
This brand gives me pleasure.							
In general, my personal values and the values represented by this brand are similar.							
Associating with this brand gives me social approval.							
I feel that my personal values are a good fit with this brand.							
This brand reflects some aspects of my self-identity.							
This brand is dependable and reliable.							
No other brand can quite take the place of this brand							

>>

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You are over half way there Please continue as your answers are important to us !

Now, I would like to know more about your feelings and opinions toward Skechers athletic shoes. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the most appropriate answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
If a story in the media criticized this brand, I would feel embarrassed.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This is a wonderful brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand will always remind me of a particular phase of my life.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I believe others respect me for my association with this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have a strong sense of belonging to this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am glad to be associated with this brand.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand reminds me of who I am.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Based on all my experience with this brand, I am very satisfied.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel like something's missing when I have not used this brand in a while.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This brand is an important part of my self-image.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Take a moment to think about Skechers athletic shoes.Describe this brand using personality characteristics such as reliable, smooth, etc.

Now think about how you would like to see yourself (your ideal self). What kind of person you would like to be? Once you've done this, indicate your agreement or disagreement to the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The personality of this brand is a mirror image of the person I would like to be (my ideal self).	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The personality of this brand is consistent with how I would like to be (my ideal self).	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

For each item below, please circle the appropriate response that best describes your relationship with Skechers athletic shoes.

	Not at all 1	2	3	4	5	6	Extremely 7
To ensure that participants are reading the questions, please select "Extremely" as a response to this question.							
This brand is part of me and who I am.							
I can identify with this brand.							
My thoughts and feelings toward this brand come to my mind naturally and instantly.							
I (can) use this brand to communicate who I am to other people.							

Please rate the following items in relation to your attitudes and opinions about Skechers athletic shoes .

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My association with this brand improves the way others view me.							
This brand reminds me of things I've done or places I've been.							
This brand reflects an important part of who I am.							
This brand shows who I am.							
I feel very loyal to this brand.							
It feels good to be associated with this brand.							
I would be very upset if I couldn't find this brand.							
I consider this brand to be like a part of me.							
I have a special bond with this brand.							

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Hang in there ! You are nearing the finish line

Please click the appropriate response that best describes your feelings and opinions about Skechers athletic shoes .

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The brand's and my self-image are similar.							
I know a lot about the company that makes this brand.							
I am passionate about this brand.							
I am committed to this brand.							
I am really attached to this brand.							
This brand makes me feel good.							
This brand plays an important role in my life.							
This brand is a delight.							
I love this brand.							
If this brand makes a claim or promise about its product, it is probably true.							

Please indicate the extent to which your own sense of who you are (i.e. personal identity) overlap with your sense of what Skechers athletic shoes represents (i.e. brand's identity]?

	Not at all 1	2	3	4	5	6	Extremely 7
Your answer							

Please indicate your opinions regarding Skechers athletic shoes by circling the most appropriate response.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Dislike								Like
Negative								Positive
Bad								Good

Please rate the following items in relation to your attitudes and opinions about Skechers athletic shoes.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
When I talk about this brand, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.							
When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.							
I have tried to answer all of the questions honestly and accurately.							
I am very interested in what others think about this brand.							
This brand's successes are my successes.							
When someone criticizes this brand, it feels like a personal insult.							
I feel happy to be associated with this brand.							
I feel emotionally attached to this brand.							
I stick with this brand because I know it is the best for me.							

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Congratulations! This is the last page!

In the next few questions, we need to know a little bit about you. Please circle the most appropriate response to each item below.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I daydream a lot.	○	○	○	○	○
I often think about the past and what might have been.	○	○	○	○	○
When I go to the movies I find it easy to lose myself in the film.	○	○	○	○	○

The following information is needed for <u>classification purposes only</u>. For <u>each</u> item, please click the appropriate response.

Your gender

○ Male ○ Female

Your age

○ 18-25
○ 26-35
○ 36-45
○ 46-55
○ 56-65
○ 66 or more

What is your annual income?

○ $20,000 or less
○ $20,001 - $40,000
○ $40,001 - $60,000
○ $ 60,001 - $80,000
○ $80,001 - $100,000
○ More than $100,000

What is your highest level of completed education?

○ Less than a high school graduate
○ High school graduate
○ Undergraduate degree (Bachelor's degree)
○ Postgraduate degree (Master's or doctoral degree)

Thank you very much for your help with the survey.

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APPENDIX C1

Questionnaire Used in the Pilot Study – Final Validation Study (3rd Sample)

UNIVERSITY OF Hull

Dear participants,

I am a PhD student under the supervision of Professor Chanaka Jayawardhena at the University of Hull. This survey is a part of my doctoral dissertation examining consumers' relationships with brands.

We are distributing this survey to only a limited number of individuals in the Hull area. As a thank you, we are giving all those who complete the survey the chance to win one of four £50 amazon gift vouchers.

The questionnaire should take approximately **10-15** minutes to complete. There are no right or wrong answers, so answer the questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Please answer **ALL** of the questions even though you will notice that some statements are very similar. This is deliberate and is needed for rigour.

All responses you provide are confidential and will be combined with others and used only for academic research purposes.

If you have any questions concerning this research study, or if you would like to get more information, please get in touch using the contact details provided below.

Thank you once again in advance for completing the questionnaire.

Sincerely,

Alaa ElBedweihy Doctoral Student Hull University Business School Email : a.m.elbedweihy@2011.hull.ac.uk	Prof Chanaka Jayawardhena Hull University Business School Tel: 44(0)1482 463532 Email: c.jayawardhena @ hull.ac.uk

If you would like to be entered into a draw to win one of four £50 amazon gift vouchers, please write down your email address once you have finished the questionnaire. The 4 winners will be drawn at random and contacted in April 2014.

Email Address:……………………………………………………………..

Service Brand Selection

Please take a moment to think of the brands you deal with in the following service categories: **Financial Services (e.g. banks, insurance, stock brokers, etc.) , Travel Agents, Hair Dressers, Restaurants, and Hotels**.

Now, please write down the name of **ONE brand, from the service types listed above, with which you visit/deal with on a regular basis.**

Name of the brand:………………………………………………………………….

How long have you been dealing with this brand?

IMPORTANT: Please answer all the questions below with respect to the particular brand you selected.

In general, I would like to know YOUR degree of involvement or interest in the products provided by the chosen service provider. For each item below, please circle the most appropriate response.

Unimportant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Important to me**
Of no concern to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Of concern to me**
Irrelevant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Relevant to me**
Means nothing to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Means a lot to me**
Useless to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Useful to me**
Insignificant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	**Significant to me**

The following questions give us an indication about YOUR relationship with the selected provider. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by circling the most appropriate answer.

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?	**Strongly Disagree**	→					**Strongly Agree**
I am very interested in what others think about [service provider].	11	22	33	44	55	66	77
When I talk about [service provider], I usually say ‘we’ rather than ‘they’	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Associating with [service provider] brand gives me social approval.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I identify strongly with [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My association with [service provider] brand improves the way others view me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The selected service provider………	**Strongly Disagree**	→					**Strongly Agree**
………. embodies what I believe in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……….successes are my successes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……….is like a part of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……….has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……….is central to my identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

To what extent the following statements describe <u>YOUR relationship with the selected service provider</u>?	**Strongly Disagree**			→			**Strongly Agree**
My sense of self overlaps with [service provider's] identity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If you read this item, please select "Strongly Agree" as a response to this question.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a strong sense of closeness to their brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My association with [service provider] improves the way I am perceived by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I believe others respect me for my association with [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The statements below relate to <u>YOUR behaviour toward the chosen service provider</u>. Please select the most appropriate number for your response to each item below.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

To what extent you agree that the statements below reflect <u>YOUR behaviour toward the service provider</u>?

The employees of [service provider] get my full cooperation. ☐

I carefully observe the rules and policies of [service provider]. ☐

I go out of my way to treat [service provider's] personnel with kindness and respect. ☐

I do things that can make [service provider's] employee's job easier. ☐

I make constructive suggestions to [service provider] on how to improve their service. ☐

☐

To what extent you agree that the statements below reflect <u>YOUR behaviour toward the service provider</u>?

I let [service provider] knows of ways that can better service my needs. ☐

If I have a useful idea on how to improve service, I give it to someone at [service provider] ☐

When I experience a problem at [service provider], I let an employee know. ☐

If I notice a problem at [service provider], I inform an employee even if it does not affect me. ☐

If an employee at [service provider] gives me good service, I let them know about it. ☐

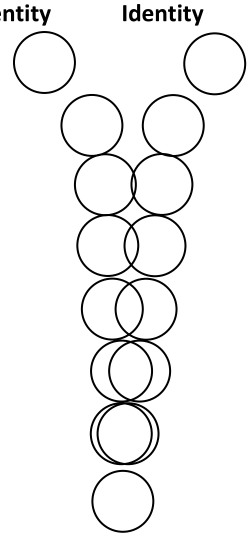
Based on your past experience with the service provider, how likely are you to ……?	**Not at All Likely**			**Moderately Likely**			**Extremely Likely**
……….help others when they do not know how to use this service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……….teach someone how to use the service correctly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……….explain to other customers how to use the service correctly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate to what degree your <u>self-image overlaps with the chosen [service provider's] image</u> by circling the most appropriate number.

Not at All			Moderately			Very Much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Imagine that the circle at the left in each row represents your own personal identity and the other circle, at the right, represents the [service provider's] identity. Please indicate which case (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, or H) best describes the <u>level of overlap between your own and [the service provider's] identity</u>. Please <u>circle</u> the most <u>appropriate letter</u>.

My Identity **Service Provider's Identity**



A Far Apart

B Close Together but Separate

C Very Small Overlap

D Small Overlap

E Moderate Overlap

F Large Overlap

G Very Large Overlap

H Complete Overlap

Now, I would like to know more about <u>YOUR feelings toward the selected service provider</u>. Using the scale below, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

To what extent you agree with the statements below?

I feel emotionally attached to the [service provider].

It feels good to be associated with [service provider].

A negative report in the media about [service provider] would make me feel ashamed

When someone praises [service provider], it feels like a personal compliment

I have a special bond with [service provider] brand.

I feel happy to be associated with [service provider] brand

To what extent the following statements reflect <u>YOUR feelings toward the service provider</u>?

I feel a strong sense of belonging to [service provider] brand.

I feel a personal connection to [service provider].

If a story in the media criticized [service provider], I would feel embarrassed

I am glad to be associated with [service provider] brand.

I am proud to tell others about my association with [service provider] brand.

When someone criticizes [service provider], it feels like a personal insult.

Think about <u>your chosen service provider's salespeople's behaviours directed toward customers</u>. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[Service provider's] salespeople ……..

……..try to figure out what a customer's needs are.

……..have a customer's best interest in mind.

…….. take a problem solving approach in selling products or services to customers.

………to ensure that participants are reading the questions, please select "Agree" as a response to this question

……..recommend products or services that are best suited to solving the customer's problems.

In sales conversations, [service provider's] salespeople ……..

……..try to establish a personal relationship with customers.

……..show high interest in the personal situation of their customers.

Salespeople of [service provider] ……..

……….try to find out which kinds of products or services would be most helpful to customers.

………..often talk with their customers about private issues.

…………often point out things they have in common with their customers (e.g., common interests, experiences, and attitudes).

The following statements relate to how <u>the selected service provider treats customers</u>. Using the scale below, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[Service provider] …….

……..rewards regular customers for their patronage.

……..offers discounts to regular customers for their patronage.

……..makes more efforts for regular customers than for nonregular customer.

……..offers special treatments to regular customers than to nonregular customers.

[Service provider] …….

……..offers regular customers something extra because they keep buying there.

……..offers special financial benefits and incentives to regular customer for their patronage.

……..offers better service to regular customers than to nonregular customers.

……..does more for regular customers than for nonregular customers.

To what extent you agree with the following statements?

[Service provider] keeps me constantly informed of new products and services that could be in my interest.

[Service provider] often sends information to customers.

[Service Provider] communicates information in a variety of ways.

The information provided by [service provider] is clear and transparent.

In the next few questions, we need to know a little bit about YOU. Please circle the most appropriate response to <u>each</u> item below.

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?	**Strongly Disagree**					→	**Strongly Agree**
I often think about the past and what might have been.	11	22	33	44	55	66	77
I daydream a lot.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have tried to answer all of the questions honestly and accurately.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I go to the movies I find it easy to lose myself in the film.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following information is needed for <u>classification purposes only</u>. For <u>each</u> item, please tick the appropriate response.

Gender ☐ Male ☐ Female

How old are you? ☐ Years

What is your annual income? ☐ £ 10,000 or less ☐ £10,001-£20,000 ☐ £20,001-£30,000

☐ £30,001-£40,000 ☐ £40,001-£50,000 ☐ More than £50,000

What is the highest level of completed education?

☐ Less than a high school graduate ☐ High school graduate

☐ Undergraduate degree ☐ Postgraduate degree

How long have you been living in the U.K.? ☐ I was born in the U.K ☐ More than 10 years

. ☐ 6-10 years ☐ 1-5 years ☐ Less than 1 year

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND VALUABLE CONTRIBUTION TO THE STUDY

PLEASE RETURN IN PRE-PAID ENVELOP PROVIDED

APPENDIX C2

Questionnaire Used in the Main Study – Final Validation Study (3rd Sample)

UNIVERSITY OF Hull

Dear participants,

I am a PhD student under the supervision of Professor Chanaka Jayawardhena at the University of Hull. This survey is a part of my doctoral dissertation examining consumers' relationships with consumer brands. The outcomes of the study are expected to help service brands provide customer benefits that may lead to the formation of strong relationships with such brands.

We are distributing this survey to a limited number of individuals in the Hull area. As a thank you, we are giving all those who complete the survey the chance to win one of four £50 Amazon gift vouchers.

The questionnaire should take approximately **10-15** minutes to complete. There are **no right or wrong answers**, so answer the questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Please answer **ALL** of the questions even though you will notice that some statements are very similar. This is deliberate and is needed for statistical purposes.

All responses are confidential and will be aggregated to ensure anonymity and used only for academic research purposes.

If you have any questions concerning this research study, or if you would like to receive more information, please contact us.

Thank you in advance for completing the questionnaire and supporting my research.

Sincerely,

Alaa ElBedweihy
Doctoral Student
Hull University Business School
Email : a.m.elbedweihy@2011.hull.ac.uk

Prof Chanaka Jayawardhena
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Email: c.jayawardhena @ hull.ac.uk

Service Brand Selection

Please take a moment to think of the brands you deal with in the following service categories:

- **Banks** (e.g. HSBC, Lloyds, NatWest, etc.)
- **Insurance companies** (e.g. Direct Line, Swindon, etc.)
- **Travel Agents** (e.g. Thomas Cook, Thomson, etc.)
- **Hair Dressers**
- **Pubs & Restaurants** (Not KFC, McDonald's, etc.)

Now, please write down the name of **ONE brand, from the service types listed above, with which you visit/deal with on a regular basis.**

Name of the brand/service provider:……………………………………………………………….

How long have you been dealing with this brand/service provider? [ ]

IMPORTANT: Please answer all the questions below with respect to the particular brand/service provider you have selected above.

In general, I would like to know YOUR level of involvement or interest in the products provided by the chosen service provider. For each item below, please circle the most appropriate response.

Unimportant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Important to me
Of no concern to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Of concern to me
Irrelevant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Relevant to me
Means nothing to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Means a lot to me
Useless to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Useful to me
Insignificant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Significant to me

The statements below relate to YOUR behaviour toward the chosen service provider. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the appropriate response.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree →						Strongly Agree
The employees of [service provider] get my full cooperation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I carefully observe the rules and policies of [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I go out of my way to treat [service provider's] personnel with kindness and respect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do things that can make [service provider's] employee's job easier.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I make constructive suggestions to [service provider] on how to improve their service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I say positive things about [service provider] to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I let [service provider] knows of ways that can better serve my needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I have a useful idea on how to improve service, I give it to someone at [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I experience a problem at [service provider], I let an employee know.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I notice a problem at [service provider], I inform an employee even if it does not affect me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I encourage friends and relatives to deal with [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Based on your past experience with the service provider, <u>how likely are you to</u> ……….?	**Not at All Likely**			**Moderately Likely**			**Extremely Likely**
……….help others when they do not know how to use this service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……….teach someone how to use the service correctly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……….explain to other customers how to use the service correctly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following questions give us an indication about <u>YOUR relationship with the selected service provider</u>. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by <u>circling</u> the most appropriate answer.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I am very interested in what others think about [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I talk about [service provider], I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Associating with [service provider] brand gives me social approval.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I identify strongly with [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My association with [service provider] brand improves the way others view me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel committed to my relationship with [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The selected service provider………	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
………. embodies what I believe in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
………..successes are my successes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
………..is like a part of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
………..has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
………..is central to my identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

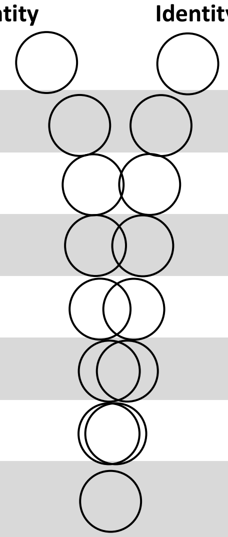
	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
My sense of self overlaps with the [service provider's] identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Please select "Strongly Disagree" as a response to this question.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a strong sense of closeness to [service provider] brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My association with [service provider] brand improves the way I am perceived by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I believe others respect me for my association with [service provider] brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am willing "to go the extra mile" to deal with [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate to what degree your self-image overlaps with the [service provider's] image by circling the most appropriate number.

Not at All			Moderately			Very Much
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Imagine that the circle at the left in each row represents your own personal identity and the other circle, at the right, represents the [service provider's] identity. Please indicate which case (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, or H) best describes the level of overlap between your own and the [service provider's] identity. Please circle the most appropriate letter.

My Identity | Service Provider's Identity



A	Far Apart
B	Close Together but Separate
C	Very Small Overlap
D	Small Overlap
E	Moderate Overlap
F	Large Overlap
G	Very Large Overlap
H	Complete Overlap

For each statement, please indicate *how often* the following occurred over the last 12 months.

	Never						All the time
A person close to me recommended a competitor of [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A person close to me spoke positively of a competitor of [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Others mentioned to me that they deal with a competitor of [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My close friends or relatives………	**N ever**	→				**All the time**
…………warned me not to deal with a competitor of [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…………complained about a competitor of [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…………told me not to use the services of a competitor of [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Now, I would like to know more about YOUR feelings toward the selected service provider. For each item, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither Agree Nor Disagree**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	→					**Strongly Agree**
I feel emotionally attached to [service provider]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It feels good to be associated with [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A negative report in the media about [service provider] would make me feel ashamed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When someone praises [service provider], it feels like a personal compliment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a special bond with [service provider] brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel happy to be associated with [service provider] brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree	→					**Strongly Agree**
I feel a strong sense of belonging to [service provider] brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel a personal connection to [service provider].	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If a story in the media criticized [service provider], I would feel embarrassed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am glad to be associated with [service provider] brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am proud to tell others about my association with [service provider] brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When someone criticizes [service provider], it feels like a personal insult.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Think about your chosen service provider's salespeople's behaviours directed toward customers. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements by circling the appropriate response.

[Service provider's] salespeople ……..	**Strongly Disagree**	→					**Strongly Agree**
……..try to figure out what a customer's needs are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…….have the customer's best interest in mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…….. take a problem solving approach in selling products or services to customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……… please select "Strongly Agree" as a response to this question.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……..recommend products or services that are best suited to solving the customer's problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In sales conversations, [service provider's] salespeople ……..	**Strongly Disagree**			→			**Strongly Agree**
……..try to establish a personal relationship with customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……..show high interest in the personal situation of their customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Salespeople of [service provider] ……..	**Strongly Disagree**			→			**Strongly Agree**
……...try to find out which kinds of products or services would be most helpful to customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……….often talk with their customers about private issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…………often point out things they have in common with their customers (e.g., common interests, experiences, and attitudes).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements relate to how <u>the selected service provider treats customers</u>. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither Agree Nor Disagree**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[Service provider] ……..	**Strongly Disagree**			→			**Strongly Agree**
……..rewards regular customers for their patronage.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……..offers discounts to regular customers for their patronage.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……..makes more efforts for regular customers than for nonregular customer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……..offers special treatments to regular customers than to nonregular customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[Service provider] ……..	**Strongly Disagree**			→			**Strongly Agree**
……..offers regular customers something extra because they keep buying there.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……..offers special financial benefits and incentives to regular customer for their patronage.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……..offers better service to regular customers than to nonregular customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
……..does more for regular customers than for nonregular customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree			→			**Strongly Agree**
[Service provider] keeps me constantly informed of new products and services that could be in my interest.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[Service provider] often sends information to customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[Service Provider] communicates information with customers in a variety of ways.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The information provided by [service provider] is clear and transparent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In the next few questions, we need to know a little bit about YOU. Please circle the most appropriate response to each item below.

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?	**Strongly Disagree**	→					**Strongly Agree**
I often think about the past and what might have been.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I daydream a lot.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have tried to answer all of the questions honestly and accurately.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I go to the movies I find it easy to lose myself in the film.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This section for respondent background information. For each item, please tick the appropriate response.

Gender ☐ Male ☐ Female

How old are you? ☐ 18-25 ☐ 26-35 ☐ 36-45 ☐ 46-55 ☐ 56- 65 ☐ 66 or more

What is your annual household income?

☐ £10,000 or less ☐ £10,001 - £20,000 ☐ £20,001 - £30,000

☐ £30,001 - £40,000 ☐ £40,001 - £50,000 ☐ More than £50,000

What is the highest level of completed education?

☐ GCSEs ☐ A/L

☐ Undergraduate degree ☐ Postgraduate degree

How long have you been living in the U.K.? ☐ I was born in the U.K ☐ More than 10 years

. ☐ 6-10 years ☐ 1-5 years ☐ Less than 1 year

Your postcode (optional):……………………………………………………….

If you would like to be entered into a draw to win one of four £50 Amazon gift vouchers, please write down your email address once you have finished the questionnaire. The 4 winners will be drawn at random and notified by email in May 2014.

Email Address:……………………………………………………………..

{Email address will be used only for selecting winners of the Prize Draw and will not be used for any other purpose}

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND VALUABLE CONTRIBUTION TO THE STUDY
PLEASE RETURN IN PRE-PAID ENVELOPE PROVIDED

APPENDIX D1

Items Added after the Scale Development Study

Dimension	Item
Cognitive Identification	My sense of self overlaps with the brand's identity
Affective Identification	I have a strong sense of belonging to this brand.
Private Evaluation	I feel happy to be associated with this brand
Emotional Responses	If this brand was criticized, it would influence how I thought about myself
Emotional Responses	When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.

APPENDIX D2

Missing Values Classified by Items and Cases

Items	N	Missing	
		Frequency	Percent (%)
COOP1	335	1	.3
COOP2	335	1	.3
COOP3	335	1	.3
COOP4	334	2	.6
PART1	334	2	.6
PART2	333	3	.9
PART3	335	1	.3
PART4	333	3	.9
PART5	332	4	1.2
HELPCUST1	334	2	.6
HELPCUST2	334	2	.6
HELPCUST3	333	3	.9
BB1	231	105	31.3
BB2	324	12	3.6
COG1	334	2	.6
COG2	333	3	.9
PUBEVAL1	332	4	1.2
PUBEVAL2	335	1	.3
PUBEVAL3	333	3	.9
PUBEVAL4	335	1	.3
EMOT1	333	3	.9
EMOT2	335	1	.3
EMOT3	335	1	.3
EMOT4	334	2	.6
PRVEVAL1	335	1	.3
PRVEVAL2	334	2	.6
PRVEVAL3	335	1	.3
PRVEVAL4	335	1	.3
EMOTRES1	335	1	.3
EMOTRES2MA5	334	2	.6
FUNORT1	334	2	.6
FUNORT2	334	2	.6

FUNORT3	335	1	.3
FUNORT4	333	3	.9
FUNORT5	335	1	.3
ECONPREF1	336	0	.0
ECONPREF2	336	0	.0
ECONPREF3	334	2	.6
ECONPREF4	336	0	.0
CUSPREF1	336	0	.0
CUSPREF2	336	0	.0
CUSPREF3	336	0	.0
CUSPREF4	334	2	.6
MARVAR1	335	1	.3
MARVAR2	335	1	.3
MARVAR3	335	1	.3
Gender	328	8	2.4
Age	335	1	.3
Income	318	18	5.4
EDU	315	21	6.3
LL	336	0	.0

Number of missing data per case	**Percentage of missing data**	**Number of cases**	**Percentage of sample**
0	0%	176	52.4%
1	2%	125	37.2%
2	3.9%	22	6.5%
3	5.9%	8	2.4%
4	7.8%	2	0.6%
7	13.7%	1	0.3%
10	19.6%	1	0.3%
15	29.4%	1	0.3%
		336	100%

APPENDIX E1

Author Publications

Consumer-brand identification: A social identity based review and research directions

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Abstract

Consumer-brand identification (CBI) has gained increasing attention in the marketing literature over the past decade as a determinant of consumers' in-role and extra-role behaviour. Despite the growing interest, there are a number of problems with the conceptualisation and operationalisation of the construct in the marketing literature. In this paper, we explore this gap in the literature by presenting a critique of how consumer identification has been defined and highlight the distinction between CBI and other conceptually similar constructs ranging from self-brand connection to self-image congruence. We present a review of the current operationalisations of consumer identification construct and raise some key problems with existing measurements. A review of the antecedents and consequences of consumer identification is also undertaken. The paper provides a valuable contribution to the marketing field by integrating a wide body of research on an important topic and by offering several insights and broad avenues for future research.

Keywords: *Social identity theory, Consumer-brand identification, Literature review, Self-definitional needs, In-role behaviour, Extra-role behaviour.*

Introduction

The concept of consumer-company identification (CCI) as the main psychological substrate for the development of strong and committed relationships between consumers and companies was introduced by Bhattacharya and Sen (2003). Originally developed in social psychology and organisational behaviour areas, identification is seen as a psychological state reflecting the bond between individuals and their organisations and is capable of explaining attitudes and behaviours of employees (Edwards, 2005). Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) transferred the social identity theory (SIT) into the consumer domain and extended the concept of identification to consumer-company relationships arguing that people are able to identify with companies regardless of the absence of a formal membership. The interest in researching the identification construct expanded from the field of organisational behaviour to the marketing discipline as it represents a potentially useful means of building deep and enduring relationships with consumers, an issue that has been of great relevance and importance to academic researchers and practitioners in marketing (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, & Gruen, 2005; Homburg, Wieseke, & Hoyer, 2009).

Drawing on SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and organisational identification (OI) (e.g. Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994), Bhattacharya and Sen (2003, p.77) conceptualise CCI as "an active, selective, and volitional act motivated by the satisfaction of one or more self-definitional (i.e., "Who am I?") needs." More recently, the identification construct has been extended to the branding context (e.g. Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; Lam, Ahearne, & Schillewaert, 2012).

Consumer-brand identification (CBI) refers to one's sense of sameness with a particular brand (Tuškej, Golob, & Podnar, 2011). It is argued that people who identify with a particular brand are more likely to perform activities that benefit the brand (Ahearne et al., 2005; Homburg et al., 2009). Although this stream of research, which is based on SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), is attracting increasing attention in the marketing literature (Ahearne et al., 2005), it has been recognised that much of the empirical research has focused on examining the antecedents and consequences of consumer identification rather than carefully defining the nature of CBI itself. The confusion is due to the lack of clarity as to whether CBI includes cognitive and/or affective components (Lam, Ahearne, Hu, & Schillewaert, 2010; Papista & Dimitriadis, 2012). This reveals a gap in the literature: the lack of clear understanding of the nature of CBI. This situation has been further compounded by a lack of clarity around CBI and related constructs. Indeed, researchers have begun to question the conceptual similarities of CBI with other similar constructs in the marketing literature (e.g. Dimitriadis & Papista, 2010; Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar, & Sen, 2012). Specifically, Brown, Barry, Dacin, and Gunst (2005) argue that there are several constructs conceptually similar to CBI, including self-brand connection (Escalas & Bettman, 2003), affective commitment (Harrison-Walker, 2001), brand loyalty (Oliver, 1999), and self-image congruence (Kressmann et al., 2006). Moreover, Ashley and Brocato (2010) contend that these constructs are frequently used interchangeably or measured using the same items. In support of this view, Papista and Dimitriadis (2012, p. 38) argue that "further research is needed in order to provide more insight into the nature of this construct and distinguish it from emotional components and relevant constructs".

Therefore, the aim of this paper is to bridge this gap in the literature and contribute to a better understanding of the CBI construct. Towards this aim, the paper draws primarily on research in social psychology, marketing and organisational studies. Our review focuses on identification with organisations, companies and brands rather than just brands per se as consumer identification is formed profoundly on organisational studies. A review is needed since at the conceptual level, the lack of clear understanding of the identification construct can create contradictions with regard to defining the exact domain of CBI (Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000). Most importantly, the danger is that in not identifying the differences between CBI and conceptually similar constructs there is possibility that any of these concepts may have the same meaning but have been given different labels by different researchers resulting in a conceptual confusion and/or redundancy (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

The structure of the paper is organised around four specific objectives. First, to discuss at length the definition of identification from two major perspectives drawing primarily on organisational and marketing studies and to explore some of the differences between CBI and other conceptually similar constructs that have been identified in the marketing literature. Second, to present the common scales used in the marketing literature to measure consumer identification and the problems associated with these scales. Third, to present an integrative framework that highlights the antecedents and consequences of consumer identification proposed and empirically tested in previous research. Finally, to offer several insights and future research directions that may have particular promise for making contribution to the field.

Background and Definition of Consumer Identification

Identification from the Social Identity Theory Perspective

Proponents of SIT suggest that people tend to classify themselves and others as members into various social categories. This social categorisation allows individuals not only to cognitively segment, classify and order the social environment but also provides them with the means to define themselves and others (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). As Ashforth and Mael (1989) proposed in their seminal paper, social identification provides a partial answer to the question, "who am I?" or "who are we?". At the same time though, this self-categorisation is only one dimension of social identification as indicated by Tajfel's initial definition of social identity, where identification with a social category involves other emotional and evaluative elements. The other component of the theory is the tenet that individuals strive to achieve a positive self-esteem by trying to enhance their social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This motivates the individuals to perform favourable behaviours on behalf of the social category which they identify with (Homburg et al., 2009). The tenets of SIT have laid the theoretical foundation for the organisational identification construct over the last two decades (Riketta, 2005). Based on the notion that social identification affects social behaviour, SIT has been extensively used to understand the members' relationships with their organisations (e.g. Johnson, Morgeson, & Hekman, 2012; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Most empirical research on identification has been applied in profit and non-profit organisations where respondents are members of these settings such as museums, universities, and theatres (e.g. Bhattacharya, Rao, & Glynn, 1995; Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

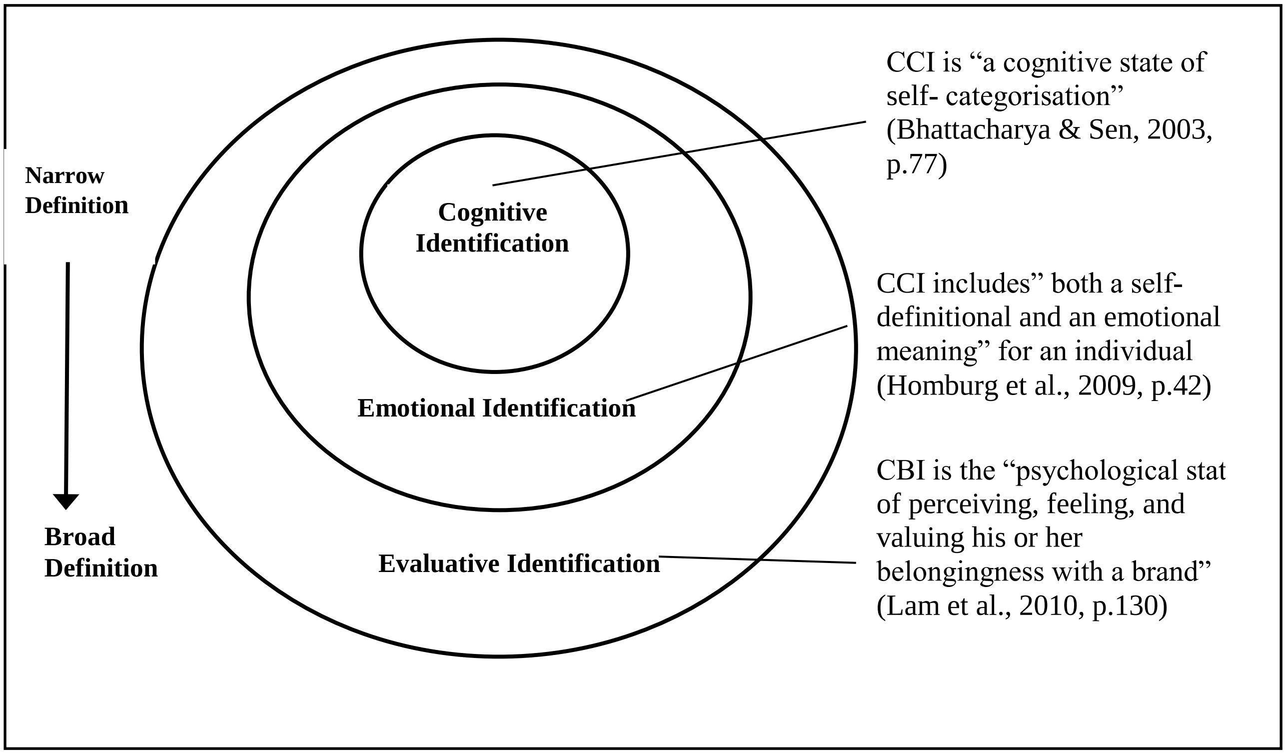
Whereas social groups are more central to many people's lives than their relationship with brands and companies (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003), brands can also take the role of the social categories or organisations with whom the consumers identify (Belk, 1988; Fournier, 1998). Thus, SIT may provide a better understanding of consumers' psychological linkage to brands in a way that complements existing theories of brand relationships (Reed, 2002). One of the main contributions of SIT is the recognition that social identification tend to occur even in the absence of interaction and still has a powerful impact on individuals' behaviour (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In line with SIT, research in OI proposed that formal membership is not a perquisite for identification (Scott & Lane, 2000) as in the case of consumers and their companies (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Following the acknowledgment that formal membership is not a prerequisite, marketing researchers have applied the concept of identification at the company level i.e. CCI (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005) and the brand level i.e. CBI (e.g. Donavan, Janda, & Suh, 2006; Lam et al., 2012). The core argument is that some companies and brands embody positive, attractive and meaningful social identities that partially fulfil one or more of consumers' key self-definitional needs (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Fournier, 1998).

Conceptualisation of Consumer Identification

Identification involves a psychological linkage between a target entity (e.g. brand) and a consumer. However, the definition of the identification construct has been subject to confusion in both organisational behaviour and marketing literature (Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Lam et al., 2010). When confusion exists regarding what falls under the identification construct, research on the topic is open to misinterpretation and confusion with other existing constructs. This section takes a two-step approach to conceptualising CBI. First, different definitions of consumer identification are presented and classified with respect to two schools of thought. The purpose of this is to highlight what is encompassed in the construct of identification. Second, we illustrate the differences between CBI and other similar constructs in the marketing literature so that the distinctiveness of the CBI construct becomes clearer.

An examination of organisational and marketing literature demonstrates two primary perspectives on the conceptualisation of identification. One school of thought embrace the multidimensional nature of identification (e.g. Lam et al., 2012; Van Dick, 2001), the other emphasises the cognitive aspects arguing that the affective and evaluative components can be only considered as potential antecedents and consequences of identification (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). An illustrative figure may assist in clarifying the different conceptualisations identified in the marketing literature. As shown in Figure 1, consumer identification is represented as a cognitive construct per se (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). As we broaden the definition of consumer identification, the affective component is included together with the cognitive component (Homburg et al., 2009). The broadest definition of consumer identification also includes the final circle, evaluative identification (Lam et al., 2010).

Figure 3 Conceptualisation of consumer identification from different perspectives



The cognitive perspective. The first school of thought in social identity research focuses upon the cognitive aspect of identification. The conceptualisation of identification as a purely cognitive construct was first proposed by Ashforth and Mael (1989), and later by Dutton et al. (1994) and Bergami and Bagozzi (2000). Ashforth and Mael (1989, p.21) define identification as "the perception of oneness with or belongingness to the organisation" and Dutton et al. (1994, p.242) conceptualise it as "the cognitive connection between the definition of an organisation and the definition a person applies to him or herself". Whereas Ashforth and Mael's (1989) definition focuses on the cognitive state of self-categorisation, Dutton et al. (1994) took the definition a step further to include the process of comparison of personal attributes with organisational attributes (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). It is worth noting that Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) argue that the process of comparison of personal attributes with organisation attributes might influence identification, thereby serving as an antecedent rather than being a part of it. A key assumption underlying the cognitive view is based upon the notion that this conceptualisation distinguishes identification from related emotional and behavioural concepts. Nonetheless, Ashforth and Mael (1989, p. 21) explicitly stated that their “view does contrast with some literature on SIT, which includes affective and evaluative dimensions in the conceptualisation of identity”. Similarly, marketing scholars conceptualise consumer identification as a cognitive concept. For instance, CCI is defined as “the degree of overlap of self-schema and organisation schema” (Brown et al., 2005, p.127). Furthermore, CBI refers to “the extent to which the consumer sees his or her own self-image as overlapping with the brand's image” (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006, p. 49). It is obvious that the above researchers tend to emphasise the thinking aspects of SIT ignoring the emotional and evaluative elements of identification i.e. they only apply a small part of SIT (Van Dick, 2001). Whereas cognitively oriented authors often present the phenomenon in a quite dry and computational way, they write about identification using emotional terms (Edwards, 2005).

The cognitive and affective perspective. Notwithstanding the appeal of the identification as a “state of social-categorisation” (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000, p.557) view that underpins much of the logic of the cognitive school of thought, it has been vigorously challenged in recent years by a number of authors who support the multidimensional nature of identification. Edwards and Peccei (2007) argue that focusing only on the cognitive aspect deprives the identification construct from a large part of its explanatory power and does not reflect the complexity of SIT. Additionally, Van Dick (2001) contends that previous studies did not take advantage of the theory by focusing only on one component of identification. These authors explicitly agree with the cognitive component of identification, however, they argue that based on SIT and for identification to occur, the individual must value and feel this

Table 2 Main conceptualisations of consumer identification

Author	Definition-where provided	Key Focus
The cognitive perspective		
Bhattacharya et al. (1995)	The perceived oneness with or belongingness to an organisation of which the person is a member.	Adopts the definition of Ashforth and Mael (1989) which focus primarily on the cognitive aspect of identification.
Bhattacharya & Sen (2003)	The cognitive state of self-categorisation.	Adopts Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) definition. The researchers propose that the whole construct of identification is explained by the cognitive aspect only.
Ahearne et al. (2005)	The degree of overlap between the consumer's self- image and the company's image.	Follows the definition of Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) which emphasise the cognitive facet of identification.
Brown et al. (2005)	The degree of overlap of self-schema and organisation schema.	Follows Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) conceptualisation emphasising the cognitive component of identification.
Cornwell & Coote (2005)	-	Although there is no clear definition of identification, the researchers follow Ashforth and Mael (1989) definition.
Bagozzi & Dholakia (2006)	The extent to which the consumer sees his or her own self-image as overlapping with the brand's image.	The researchers focus on the cognitive aspect following Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) definition.
Einwiller et al. (2006)	The degree to which consumers feel a sense of connection to a company and the degree to which aspects of the perceived organisational identity are self-referential and self-defining for them.	Focus on identification at the cognitive level.
Kuenzel & Halliday (2008)	A psychological perception on the part of an individual to consider him/herself as being intertwined with a particular group.	Focus on defining identification as a psychological perceptual construct.
Tuškej et al. (2011)	The individual's sense of sameness with a particular brand.	Emphasise the cognitive facet of identification.
Stokburger-Sauer et al. (2012)	A consumer's perceived state of oneness with a brand.	Consistent with Bergami and Bagozzi (2000), they argue that the emotional aspect must be kept separate from the state of identification.
The cognitive and affective perspective		
Donavan et al. (2006)	A strong emotional attachment with the brand and a sense of belongingness to the brand.	Focus on the cognitive and affective components of identification following the SIT.

Homburg et al.(2009)	-	Follow the SIT emphasising both the cognitive and emotional aspects of identification.
Lam et al. (2012)	The customer's psychological state of perceiving, feeling, and valuing his or her belongingness with a brand.	Focus on the cognitive, emotional and evaluative elements of identification as indicated by the SIT.

association (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). Similarly, Ellemers, Kortekaas, and Ouwerkerk (1999) propose that three aspects, namely, cognitive component, emotional component and evaluative component, contribute to one's social identity. Harquail (1998, p.225) supports this notion by proposing that "OI engages more than our cognitive self-categorisation and our brains, it engages our hearts". The multidimensional conceptualisation of identification has recently gained acceptance in both organisational behaviour (e.g. Edwards & Peccei, 2007; Van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, & Christ, 2004) and marketing (e.g. Homburg et al., 2009; Lam et al., 2012). As a result, Edwards and Peccei (2007, p.30) define OI as a "psychological linkage between the individual and the organisation whereby the individual feels a deep, self-defining affective and cognitive bond with the organisation as a social entity". In the marketing literature, Lam et al., (2010, p.130) conceptualise CBI as "the customer's psychological state of perceiving, feeling, and valuing his or her belongingness with a brand".

In summary, the most cited definitions of identification in the literature reflect the cognitive process of social categorisation perspective, thereby ignoring the multidimensional nature of identification as espoused by social identity theory. Table 1 presents an overview of the main conceptualisations of consumer identification. While there is still no general agreement as to whether identification has cognitive and/or affective dimensions, it seems difficult to maintain the position that CBI is a purely cognitive construct and to overlook other important dimensions that will add to our understanding of the CBI construct.

Distinction between Consumer-Brand Identification and Other Constructs

The second step in clarifying the definition of CBI is to illustrate what lies outside the identification construct domain by distinguishing it from other existing constructs in the marketing literature. Although some authors have highlighted this difference (Homburg et al., 2009; Lam et al., 2010), frequently the lines between some constructs are blurred (Ashley & Brocato, 2010). For instance, Brown et al. (2005) and Papista and Dimitriadis (2012) state that there are other existing concepts in the marketing literature similar to the CBI construct, including brand loyalty (Oliver, 1999), affective commitment (Harrison-Walker, 2001), self-brand connection (Escalas & Bettman, 2003) and self–image congruence (Kressmann et al., 2006).

CBI versus brand loyalty. Brand loyalty is “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronise a preferred product/service consistently in the future, causing repetitive same brand or same-brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour” (Oliver, 1999, p. 34). Bhattacharya et al. (1995) argue that brand loyalty may be an outcome of the functional benefits derived from the usage of products or services offered by the company while identification relates to the brand’s identity. They further contend that although all individuals who identify with a brand are more likely to be loyal to that particular brand, not all loyal customers identify with the brand. Moreover, Lam et al. (2010) posit that 1) brand loyalty does not capture the evaluative component (either the individual or social) of identification, 2) previous usage of the brand is not a perquisite for identification, and 3) identifying with a brand can induce extra-role behaviour beyond repurchase such as defending the brand and overlooking negative information about the brand. In an organisational context, Ashforth and Mael (1989) and Edwards (2005) argue that identification does not include any specific behaviour and this “distinguishes identification from related concepts such as effort on behalf of the group and loyalty" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 21). Indeed, empirical evidence supports the view that loyalty is one of the consequences of consumer identification (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005; Homburg et al., 2009).

CBI versus brand commitment. Organisational behaviour and marketing literature contain mounting evidence that identification and commitment are conceptually and empirically distinct constructs (e.g. Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Brown et al., 2005). Whereas consumers incorporate the brand into their self-concept in identification, commitment represents a binding relationship with the brand while the consumers’ self and the brand remain separate entities (Ashforth et al., 2008; Tuskej et al., 2011). A central difference is that CBI includes a cognitive element of self-defining and an evaluative aspect that commitment does not reflect (Homburg et al., 2009; Lam et al., 2010). Additionally, CBI develops mainly because of the brand’s relevance and importance to one’s self concept (identity basis) while commitment is seen as contingent upon the "exchange-based factors, that is the (material) relationship" between the consumer and the brand (Van Dick et al., 2004, p.186). Moreover, Riketta (2005) demonstrates that identification and commitment lead to different results regarding the consequences.

*CBI versus self-image congruenc*e. CBI and self-image congruence are conceptually and empirically distinct constructs (Lam et al., 2012). First, it is well acknowledged in the marketing literature that consumers buy brands not only for their functional utility, but also for their personal and social meanings (Levy, 1959; Sirgy, 1982). Prior organisational identification research (Dutton et al., 1994; Pratt, 1998) suggests that self-continuity need is a key driver for individuals' identification with organisations not only because it allows people to process and understand information easily but also because it provides easy opportunities to express themselves. In line with this reasoning, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) in their conceptual model propose that self-congruity is one of the antecedents of consumer identification. Second, previous studies indicate that self-brand congruence positively affects CBI (e.g. Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010; Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). Thus, it has been found empirically that self-congruity is a driver of CBI. Finally, Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) assert that it is important to differentiate between the notion of identification as a cognitive process of self-categorisation and the perceived overlap between personal and organisation attributes. Moreover, Lam et al. (2012) argue that the CBI construct is more comprehensive than the self-congruity concept where it goes beyond the cognitive similarity between one's self concept and the brand to include the emotional and evaluative aspects of psychological belongingness to the brand.

CBI versus self-brand connection. Self-brand connection is defined as "the extent to which individuals have incorporated brands into their self-concept" (Escalas & Bettman, 2003, p.340). It is formed through a comparison process between brands associations, such as user characteristics and personality traits, and consumers' self-concept to determine the ones that maximise similarity to their self-concepts, and then incorporate them into their self-concepts (Chaplin & John, 2005). By incorporating the brand as part of the self, a cognitive link is developed between the brand and the consumer (Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010). Self-brand connection, which is a purely cognitive construct as shown in Escalas and Bettman's self-brand connection measure (Papista & Dimitriadis, 2012), indicates the degree to which the brand contributes to and expresses one's identity (Fournier, 1998). Self-brand connection has been considered as a dimension of brand attachment (Park et al., 2010), brand relationship quality (Fournier, 1998) and as a unidimenisonal cognitive construct (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). The cognitive dimension of CBI shares some conceptual resemblance to self-brand connection where both concepts refer to the brand's ability to reflect a significant aspect of the consumer's self and are theoretically and empirically associated with marketing-relevant consumption behaviours, such as brand loyalty and positive word of mouth (Brown et al., 2005). Thus, the cognitive component of CBI converges somewhat with self-brand connection construct. However, we regard self-brand connection and CBI as distinct constructs because they differ on fundamental grounds. First, CBI includes a self-definitional and an emotional meaning and value to the individual (Homburg et al., 2009; Lam et al., 2010), while self-brand connection does not reflect such affective and evaluative aspects. Second, people's identification with a brand is based on the totality or gestalt of the brand's identity, rather than the far more constrained perception of brand's associations such as reference groups and personality attributes (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). Third, cognitive identification is concerned with one's actual self-concept, whereas self-brand connection is contingent upon reflecting one's current or desired self-concept. Fourth, self-brand connection is formed because the brand reflects part of one's self-concept or for its instrumental value (Park et al., 2010). However, identifying with a particular brand develops primarily when the individual acknowledges it as self-defining or self–referring to some degree (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004).

In summary, from the analysis of key conceptual and empirical literature, seven characteristics of CBI are identified and help differentiate it from other related and similar constructs. First, CBI forms with specific brands and not with material possession, product classes, companies or organisations. Second, customers may identify with a brand without actual previous usage (e.g. luxury brands) (Lam et al., 2010). Third, identification is psychological in nature and thus it does not require direct contact or interchange with others who categorise themselves with the same social category (Ashmore et al., 2004). Fourth, it is a type of self-extension in line with Belk’s (1988) assertion that individuals extend themselves into places, ideas, material possessions (Kleine & Baker, 2004) and brands (Park et al., 2010). Fifth, identification is a volitional subjective claim, that is, the individual does not associate with the brand unless the individual acknowledges it as self-defining or self–referring in some respect (Ashmore et al., 2004). Identification develops primarily because of the brand’s relevance and importance to one’s self concept (identity basis). It is a sense that this band reflects part of “me” or says something about what kind of person I am or simply symbolises “who I am”. Sixth, identification with brands is not an all-or-one phenomenon but a matter of degree (O’Reilly III & Chatman, 1986). Seventh, CBI is a multidimensional construct. Identification connotes not only self-categorisation but also involves “value and emotional significance”, in the words of Tajfel (1981, p.255). Having provided an overview of the conceptualisation of consumer identification from two major perspectives and the distinction between the CBI construct and other existing constructs, we now shift our attention to the operationalisation of the construct and highlight potential measurement problems.

Operationalisation of Consumer Identification

Despite the importance of the identification construct, measuring CBI has received limited attention in the marketing literature (Lam et al., 2010; Tildesley & Coote, 2009). A review of previous literature on consumer identification highlights two shortcomings. First, previous studies in the marketing literature have measured the identification construct simply by adapting the organisational identification scales. Mael and Ashforth’s (1992) six-item scale and Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) two-item scale have become the most common scales used in the marketing field (e.g. Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010). Table 2 presents a summary of the two common scales used for measuring the identification construct in the marketing literature.

Second, scholars have begun to question the adequacy of CBI scales adapted from the organisational behaviour field to the customer context (Lam et al., 2010; Tildesley & Coote, 2009).These researchers suggest that CBI needs to be differentiated from OI and argue for further scale development and refinement based on marketing and social psychology literature. A key problem with adapting OI scales is the assumption that these scales can be used in the consumer context just by replacing the word organisation with the word brand. Scholars have appeared to overlook the need to investigate how CBI may differ from OI given the fact that unlike employees, customers are not formal members of the company (Lam et al., 2010). Additionally, in contrast to the importance of work organisations as one of the social groups that an individual affiliates with given the amount of time spent in work and its meaning to the person's livelihood (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000), companies and brands do not play such vital role in the individuals' life (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Moreover, it has been argued in the organisational behaviour studies that the two common scales of OI used in the marketing literature suffer from some problems regarding the construct validity, unidimentionality and the failure to capture the SIT in its entirety (e.g. Edwards, 2005; Johnson et al., 2012).

Table 3 A summary of the two common scales used in the marketing literature to measure consumer identification

	Mael and Ashforth (1992)	Bergami and Bagozzi (2000)
Definition	The perception of oneness with or belongingness to an organization	The cognitive state of self-categorisation
Number of items	Unidimensional 6-item scale	Unidimensional 2-item scale (one item is visual and one is verbal)
Problems	The scale suffers from content validity where the items of the scale do not correspond to the authors' original conceptualisation of the construct i.e. it includes items relating to the affective and evaluative components of identification while the cognitive aspect which is the basis of their definition is totally neglected (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Edwards, 2005; Van Dick, 2001). The failure of the scale to differentiate between the different facets of identification which is theoretically justified (Tajfel, 1981) and empirically supported (Ellemers et al., 1999) i.e. the scale did not take into account the possible multidimensional nature of the construct (Edwards & Peccei, 2007) .	The whole construct of identification is explained by the cognitive aspect only ignoring the conceptual richness of the construct, which is too complex to be conceptualized and operationalised as cognitive self-categorisation (Lam et al., 2010; Van Dick, 2001) The scale assumes that the respondent has the same idea of what is meant by identity as the researcher, thereby without other items, this measure may suffer from potential limited reliability and validity (Edwards, 2005; Edwards & Peccei, 2007).
Studies used the scale in the marketing field	• Bhattacharya, et al. (1995) • Cornwell & Coote (2005) • Homburg et al. (2009) • Kim et al. (2001) • Kuenzel & Halliday (2008, 2010)	• Ahearne et al. (2005) • Bagozzi & Dholakia (2006) • Bhattacharya & Sen (2003) • Brown et al. (2005) • Donavan et al. (2006)

Antecedents and Consequences of Consumer Identification

Antecedents of Consumer Identification

There are three main categories of antecedents attributed to the consumers' key self-definitional needs: variables related to self-continuity needs, variables related to self-enhancement needs, and variables related to self-distinctiveness needs. SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) has laid the theoretical foundation for variables that may influence identification with social categories such as self-esteem, similarities and dissimilarities. In the marketing literature, consistent with SIT and OI research, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) in their seminal article propose that the three basic principles of self-definition-self-continuity, self-distinctiveness and self-enhancement needs- account for the attractiveness of the company's identity and in turn help to strengthen consumer identification. Specifically, their conceptual framework suggests that the attractiveness of the company's identity, which consequently induces consumers' identification with the company, depends on the degree to which consumers' perceive the company's identity as similar to their own (i.e. identity similarity), distinctive on aspects that they value (i.e. identity distinctiveness) and prestigious (i.e. identity prestige). This is because (1) identity similarity satisfies the consumers' need for self-continuity and helps them to maintain a stable and consistent sense of the self, (2) identity distinctiveness enables consumers to achieve their need for distinctiveness by distinguishing themselves from others, and (3) identity prestige helps consumers to view themselves in the reflected glory of the company and perceive themselves in a positive light (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Lam et al., 2012). Therefore, the three basic self-definitional needs are used to organise and integrate the existing literature on consumer identification. Figure 2 shows an integrative framework of the antecedents of consumer identification in previous studies. Table 3 provides an overview of the antecedents of consumer identification classified by consumers' self-definitional needs.

Figure 4 Antecedents of consumer identification classified with respect to self-definitional needs

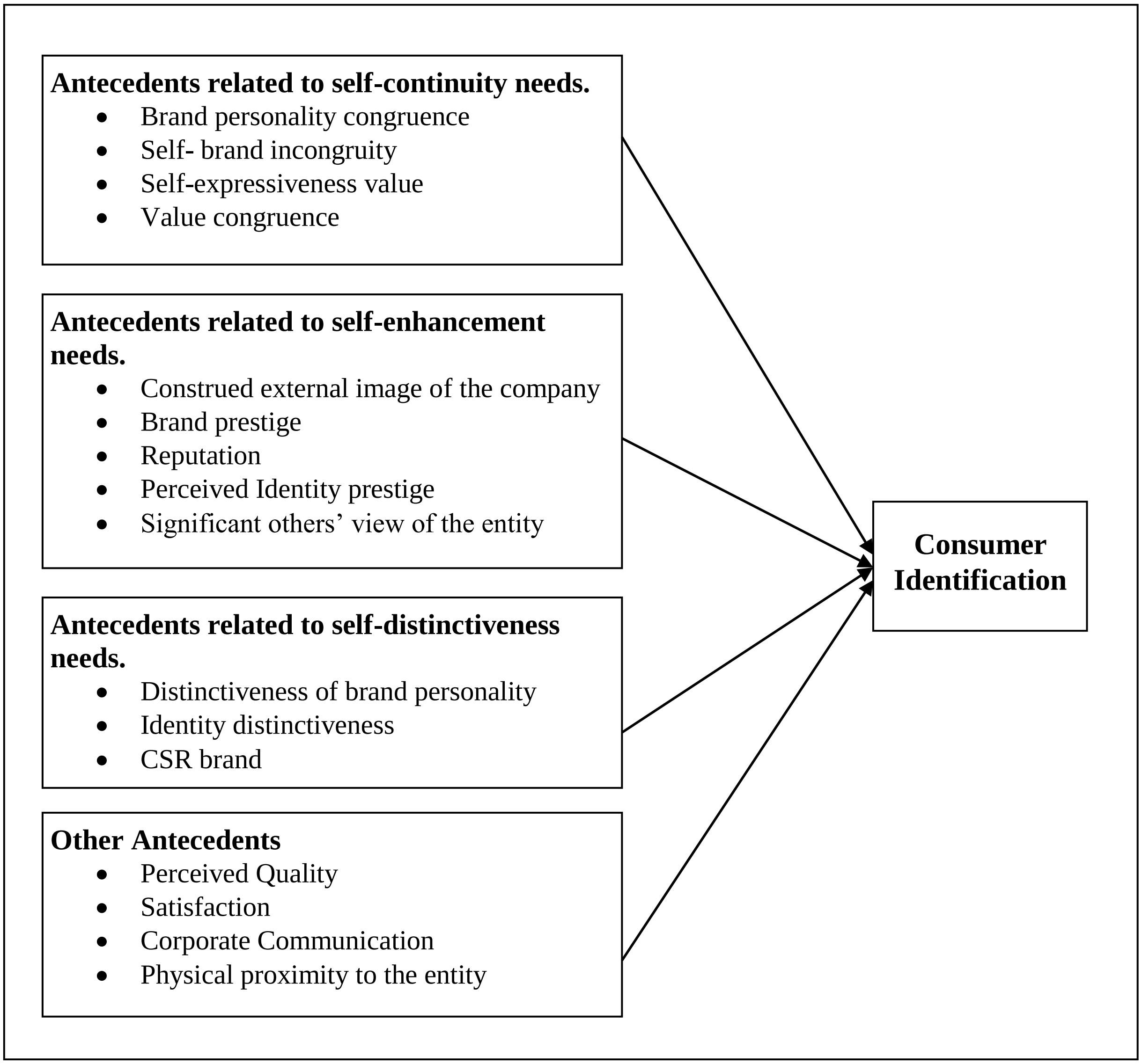


Table 4 A summary of antecedents of consumer identification classified by self-definitional needs

Antecedents	Author	Context	Relationship to Consumer identification
Variables related to self-continuity needs			
Brand personality congruence	Kuenzel & Halliday (2010)	Car owners	Positive
Self-brand incongruity (including 2 sub dimensions : self-brand personality congruity and self-brand social responsibility congruity)	Lam et al. (2012)	Five product categories: beer, sportswear, cell phones, fast-food chains, and e-commerce sites.	Negative
Self-expressiveness value	Kim et al. (2001)	Consumers of mobile phones	Indirect effect through attractiveness of brand personality
Value congruence	Tuškej et al. (2011)	Consumers’ favourite brand	Positive
Variables related to self-enhancement needs			
Construed external image of the company	Ahearne et al. (2005)	High prescribing physicians	No significant relationship
Perceived salesperson characteristics	Ahearne et al. (2005)	High prescribing physicians	Positive
Significant other’s view of the entity	Donavan et al. (2006)	Fans of college football teams	Positive
Brand prestige	Kuenzel & Halliday (2008)	Ford and Mercedes-Benz car owners	Positive
Brand reputation	Kuenzel & Halliday (2010)	Car owners	Positive
Perceived identity prestige of the company	Wu & Tsai (2008)	Consumers of ten direct selling companies in Taiwan	Positive
Perceived organisational prestige	Bhattacharya et al.(1995)	Museum members	Positive
	Cornwell & Coote (2005)	Non-profit organisations	Positive

Variables related to self-distinctiveness needs			
Perceived identity distinctiveness of the company	Wu & Tsai (2008)	Consumers of ten direct selling companies in Taiwan	No relationship
Distinctiveness of brand Personality	Kim et al. (2001)	Consumers of mobile phones	Indirect effect through attractiveness of brand personality
Awareness of a company's CSR	Sen et al. (2006)	Students' reactions to different organisations	Positive
Perceived CSR association	Marin et al. (2009)	Customers of a regional bank	Positive
Perception of CSR	Lichtenstein et al. (2004)	Customers of a national food Chain	Positive
Other antecedents			
Perceived quality	Lam et al. (2012)	Five product categories: beer, sportswear, cell phones, fast-food chains, and e-commerce sites.	Positive
Corporate communication	Kuenzel & Halliday (2008)	Ford and Mercedes-Benz car owners	Positive
Satisfaction	Kuenzel & Halliday (2008)	Ford and Mercedes-Benz car owners	Positive
	Bhattacharya et al. (1995)	Museum members	Positive
Physical proximity to the entity	Donavan et al. (2006)	Fans of college football teams	Negative
Length of membership	Bhattacharya et al. (1995)	Museum members	Positive
	Cornwell & Coote (2005)	Non-profit organisation	Positive
Participation in similar organisations	Bhattacharya et al. (1995)	Museum members	Negative
	Cornwell & Coote (2005)	Non-profit organisation	No relationship
Visibility of membership	Bhattacharya et al. (1995)	Museum members	No relationship

Self-continuity needs. Self-continuity needs suggest that in an attempt to express themselves to others and process information easily, people are motivated to maintain self-consistency over time and across situation (Dutton et al., 1994). Thus, in an attempt to construct consistent social identities, the need for self-continuity is a key factor that concerns peoples' perceptions of the attractiveness of a company's identity which in turn influences their level of identification (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). The influence of self-congruity, driven by self-continuity needs, has been proposed and addressed in several studies. Diverse aspects of self-congruity and its impact on consumer-identification have been examined: congruity with brand personality (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010; Lam et al., 2012); the brand in general (Kim, Han, & Park, 2001); brand social responsibility (Lam et al., 2012); values (Tuškej et al., 2011); and the company's employees (Homburg et al., 2009). Kim et al. (2001) found that self-expressive value has a significant effect on brand attractiveness which in turn affects brand identification. In a large multinational study involving 15 countries, Lam et al. (2012) showed that a negative relationship between self-brand incongruity and CBI exists. The results of Kuenzel and Halliday (2010) are consistent with the previous findings where the researchers reported that brand personality congruence has a significant effect on CBI. Similarly, Tuškej et al. (2011) found a positive influence of value congruity on CBI. Accordingly, congruity between the consumer and the brand has been found to strengthen the consumer's identification. Whereas the previous studies investigated the direct impact of self-congruity on CBI, Homburg et al. (2009) study of travel agency employees and customers examined employee-customer similarity as a moderator. However, it was found that employee-customer similarity yields no significant moderating effects for the link between employee-company identification and CCI.

Self-enhancement needs. While consumers are motivated to identify with brands to satisfy their self-continuity needs, fulfilling their self-enhancement needs is one of the critical determinants of identification. Social identity theorists (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) posit that individuals strive to enhance their self-esteem which is based on the degree that one's social groups are valued and compared favourably relative to relevant out-groups. The notion that consumers buy products to enhance their self-esteem is well acknowledged in consumer behaviour literature (Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967). Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) suggest that people identify with prestigious companies to maintain a positive social identity and enhance their self-esteem by viewing themselves in the company's reflected glory. Prior research supports the positive relationship between the brand's prestige (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008), perceived identity prestige of the company (Wu & Tsai, 2008), brand reputation (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010) and consumer identification in a for-profit consumer context. Consistent with the previous findings, Bhattacharya et al. (1995) and Cornwell and Coote (2005) have reported the impact of identity prestige on consumer identification in a non-profit context such as museums and non-profit organisations. Moreover, Donavan et al. (2006) in their study of college sports fans found that a significant other's view of the entity significantly influence brand identification. In contrast to these findings, the Ahearne et al. (2005) study of high-prescribing physicians found that the company's construed external image, in the presence of perceived salesperson characteristics and perceived organisational characteristics, does not have a significant effect on CCI. Although most of the previous research has focused on variables related to the brand's image, little research has focused on other determinants that may fulfil consumers' self-enhancement needs such as the image of salespeople or other consumers of the brands. For instance, Ahearne et al. (2005) found that a more favourable perception of salesperson characteristics led to higher levels of identification.

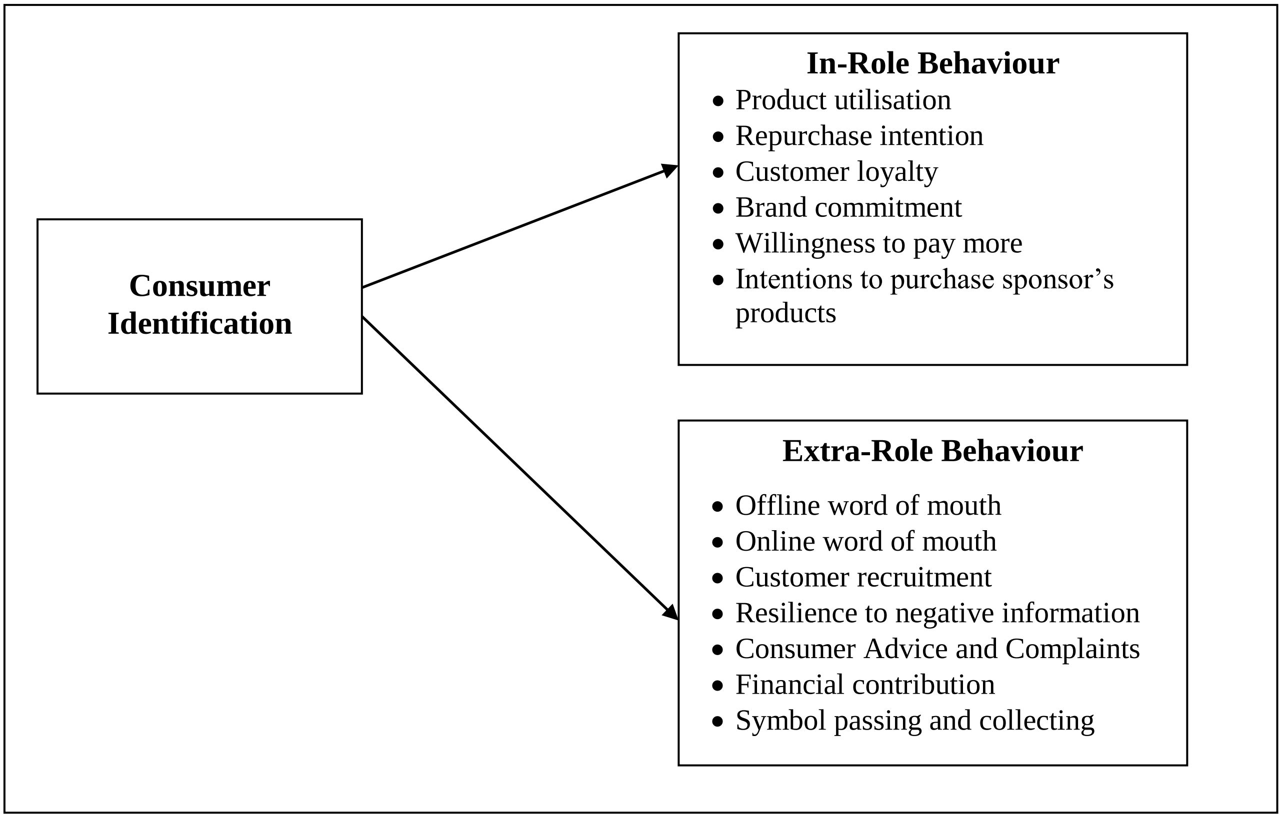
Self-distinctiveness needs. Social identity research argues that people seek to differentiate themselves from others and thus are more likely to associate with groups that are perceived to be positively distinctive in dimensions they value compared to relevant out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Distinctiveness relates to how the organisation is different from other organisations thus providing a more salient definition to its members (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) propose that consumers who believe that their company is distinctive relative to other companies are more likely to be attracted to this company and consequently strengthen consumers' identification. However, the empirical support for the impact of distinctiveness on consumer identification has been mixed. Whereas Kim et al. (2001) found a positive relationship between distinctiveness of a brand personality and CBI through brand attractiveness, Wu and Tsai (2008) reported that identity distinctiveness does not affect CCI. Interestingly, Kim et al. (2001) found that self-expressive value driven by self-continuity needs has a stronger impact on brand identification than brand distinctiveness. Other studies have argued that CSR-based identity represents a distinctive aspect that encourage consumers not only to like, respect and admire the company but also to identify with it. In this respect, previous research reveals that CSR has a positive influence on consumer identification (e.g. Lichtenstein, Drumwright, & Braig, 2004; Marin, Ruiz, & Rubio, 2009). In support of this view, Du, Bhattacharya and Sen (2007) found that consumers of a CSR brand are more likely to identify with that brand than consumers of non-CSR brands.

Other antecedents. Though, the variables representing the three main self-definitional needs have been the most frequently investigated as antecedents of consumer-identification, several studies have attempted to investigate the effect of other variables on consumer identification. Lam et al. (2012) reported a positive relationship between perceived quality and CBI arguing that consumer-brand relationship is a function of both functional and symbolic values derived from the brand. Kuenzel and Halliday (2008) found that satisfaction and corporate communication have a positive impact on CBI. Moreover, these authors reported that satisfaction has a stronger impact on brand identification relative to communication and the brand's prestige. In support of this view, Bhattacharya et al. (1995) demonstrated the positive impact of satisfaction on consumer identification in a non-profit context. Furthermore, Donavan et al. (2006) found that the physical proximity from the team negatively predicts brand identification. With regard to affiliation characteristics, Bhattacharya et al. (1995) found that length of membership influences the level of members' identification, visibility of membership is not significantly related to identification and members' participation in similar organisations is negatively related to identification. Similarly, Cornwell and Coote (2005) reported a positive relationship between tenure of participation in an event and consumer identification. In contrast to the Bhattacharya et al., (1995) findings, Cornwell and Coote (2005) found no significant relationship between members' participation in similar events and their level of identification.

Consequences of consumer identification

SIT proposes that individuals tend to choose activities that are congruent with important aspects of their identities and support institutions that reflect those identities (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Park et al. (2010) extended the self-expansion theory and propose that the more the brand is incorporated in the self, the more likely consumers expend their own social, financial and time resources to maintain this brand relationship. In line with this reasoning, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) propose that identifiers have a clear stake in the success of the company, driven by their self-definitional needs, and thus will be motivated to engage in beneficial kinds of behaviour for the company and to be committed to the achievement of the company's goals. They further extended that consumers' behaviour can be classified into a continuum from low levels such as customer loyalty to high levels such as resilience to negative information about the company (Lam et al., 2012). Previous studies have primarily focused on two kinds of consumers' behaviour: active or in-role behaviour and proactive or extra-role behaviour as shown in Figure 3. More specifically, prior research has examined: (a) the impact of consumer identification on consumers' in-role behaviour such as customer loyalty and repurchase intentions, and (b) the influence of consumer identification on consumers' extra-role behaviour such as positive word of mouth and customer recruitment.

Figure 5 Consequences of Consumer Identification



In the context of members of non-profit organisations, cultural and educational institutions, and college sports teams, identification has been found to be positively related to member's exhibition of in role behaviour such as intentions to purchase sponsors' products (Cornwell & Coote, 2005), extra-role behaviour such as symbol passing and collecting (Donavan et al., 2006). These findings imply that consumers' identification with the organisation positively affects consumers' active and proactive behaviour. In support of these findings, in the customer context, empirical research reports preliminary support that consumer identification influence both consumers' in-role behaviour such as product utilisation (Ahearne et al., 2005), repurchase intention (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; Lam et al., 2012), customer loyalty (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2010; Lichtenstein et al., 2004), brand commitment (Tuškej et al., 2011), willingness to pay more (Homburg et al., 2009) and extra-role behaviour such as offline word of mouth (Brown et al., 2005; Tuškej et al., 2011), online word of mouth (Lam et al., 2012), customer recruitment (Wu & Tsai, 2008), resilience to negative information (Einwiller, Fedorikhin, Johnson, & Kamins, 2006), consumer advice and complaints (Wu & Tsai, 2008) and non-profit donations (Lichtenstein et al., 2004).

Indeed, almost all of the previous studies found a positive relationship between consumer identification and a multitude of consequences (see Table 4). A number of studies, however, show partially divergent results. Kim et al. (2001) found that brand identification is not significantly related to brand loyalty. Moreover, Brown et al. (2005) found that the impact of consumer identification on WOM intentions is fully mediated through commitment. Similarly, Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006) in their study of group communities found that brand identification does not significantly influence brand behaviour. In previous studies, few moderators of the relationship between consumer identification and its outcomes have been investigated. Marin et al. (2009) found that for high identity salience individuals, the influence of identification on loyalty is stronger than for low identity salience individuals. Moreover, Homburg et al. (2009) found that length of a customer relationship significantly moderates the link between consumer identification and willingness to pay.

Table 5 A summary of consequences of consumer identification in previous Studies

Consequences	Author	Context	Relationship to Consumer identification
Variables related to in-role behaviour			
Product utilisation	Ahearne et al. (2005)	High prescribing physicians	Positive
Repurchase intentions	Lam et al. (2012)	Five product categories: beer, sportswear, cell phones, fast-food chains, and e-commerce sites	Positive
	Kuenzel & Halliday (2008)	Ford and Mercedes-Benz car owners	Positive
Intentions to purchase sponsors' products	Cornwell & Coote (2005)	Non-profit organisation	Positive
Customer loyalty	Kim et al. (2001)	Consumers' of mobile phones	No relationship
	Kuenzel & Halliday (2010)	Car owners	Positive
	Homburg et al. (2009)	Customers and employees of travel agencies	Positive
	Wu & Tsai (2008)	Consumers of ten direct selling companies in Taiwan	Positive
	Lichtenstein et al. (2004)	Customers of a national food Chain	Positive
	Marin et al. (2009)	Customers of a regional bank	Positive
Brand behaviour	Bagozzi & Dholakia (2006)	Brand community	No relationship
Brand commitment	Donavan et al. (2006)	Fans of college football teams	Positive
	Tuškej et al. (2011)	Customers' favourite brand	Positive
Willingness to pay more	Homburg et al. (2009)	Travel agencies	Positive

Variables related to extra- role behaviour			
Offline WOM	Ahearne et al. (2005)	High prescribing physicians	Positive
	Kim et al. (2001)	Consumers’ of mobile phones	Positive
	Kuenzel & Halliday (2008)	Ford and Mercedes-Benz car owners	Positive
	Tuškej et al. (2011)	Customers’ favourite brand	Positive
WOM intentions	Brown et al. (2005)	Automobile dealership’s customers	Indirect effect through commitment
WOM behaviour	Brown et al. (2005)	Automobile dealership’s customers	Direct and indirect (via commitment) impact on WOM behaviour.
Online WOM (net behaviour)	Lam et al. (2012)	Five product categories: beer, sportswear, cell phones, fast-food chains, and e-commerce sites	Positive
Customer recruitment	Wu & Tsai (2008)	Consumers of ten direct selling companies in Taiwan	Positive
Resilience to negative information	Einwiller et al. (2006)	Fictitious company	Positive
Consumer advice and complaint	Wu & Tsai (2008)	Consumers of ten direct selling companies in Taiwan	Positive
Donations	Lichtenstein et al. (2004)	Customers of a national food Chain	Positive
Symbol passing and collecting	Donavan et al. (2006)	Fans of college football teams	Positive

Summary and Directions for Future Research

This review has traced the development of the consumer identification construct over the last decade and highlighted some issues that are still to be solved particularly in terms of how the notion of identification is defined and measured. The discussion has helped to clarify the distinction between CBI and other conceptually similar constructs in the marketing literature. The present paper also provides a review of the antecedents and consequences of consumer identification along with an integrative framework. Despite the important insights provided by prior research, this review has thrown up a number of issues in need of further investigation. First, the review shows that the key areas remaining contentious relate to the extent to which the identification construct includes a cognitive and/or affective aspect as well as its conceptual overlap with other existing constructs in the marketing literature. Further work is needed to provide a clear and precise conceptualisation of CBI that may help academics and practitioners understand the phenomenon of identification. Second, future research is needed to develop and validate a rigorous operationalisation of CBI construct, rooted in social psychology and marketing literature, instead of unquestionably adopting the Mael and Ashforth (1992) scale and the Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) scale as a generally applicable measure. Unexplored dimensions may open up new avenues for improving the explanatory power of the said construct to better understand and predict consumer behaviour. This would be a considerable step forward in identification research. Third, most previous studies focused on examining the influence of the symbolic attributes of a brand on consumers' level of identification and therefore reflected a small portion of the total picture which consumers have about a particular brand. Further research might highlight the impact of the brand's functional attributes on consumer identification. Whereas the role of personality variables in identification such as sentimentality has been examined in organisation studies, there is a lack of research in the consumer-context. Moreover, future research might explore how identification varies across different product categories and also across product brands and service brands. The determinants of identification could differ from highly visible consumption to privately consumed products. Fourth, with regard to the consequences, whereas previous studies have focused on examining the benefits derived from consumers' identification to the company and brand, little attention has been given to the benefits of identification to the individual. Therefore, the study of the individual's psychological outcomes of identification is a worthwhile future research endeavour. Finally, future research should integrate variables that can moderate the suggested relationships among constructs such as product involvement, consumption profiles (owners vs. new consumers), length and intensity of relationship, and consumer profiles (gender, income, and education). Research into such moderators would provide additional insights into when and how the influences of antecedents on CBI differ.

CUSTOMER RELATIONSHIP BUILDING THROUGH IDENTIFICTION: THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF PERCEIVED QUALITY AND MODERATING EFFECT OF BRAND ENGAGEMENT

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Keywords: *Brand identification, brand prestige, brand-personality congruence, perceived quality, brand promotion.*

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The identity perspective on consumer-brand relationships has drawn considerable attention in the marketing literature. As a construct that describes the psychological linkage between consumers and brands, identification is a powerful predictor of a variety of consumer attitudes and behaviours. Although previous studies on consumer-brand identification (CBI) have provided useful insights, two limitations are apparent. First, previous research has primarily concentrated on the symbolic drivers of CBI. However, how both symbolic and instrumental attributes influence the extent to which consumers identify with a particular brand has received far less attention (He and Li 2011; Lam, Ahearne, and Schillewaert 2012). Second, there are inconsistencies in findings of studies examining the direct impact of brand prestige on CBI. Finally,

studies assessing the role of potential moderators in the relationship between CBI and its drivers are scant.

It is well acknowledged in the marketing literature that instrumental attributes and symbolic attributes shape the consumers perceptions of the brand's image (Keller 1993). This instrumental-symbolic framework is rooted in the functional theory of attitudes (Highhouse, Thornbury, and Little 2007). The functional approach (Katz 1960) is based on the notion that attitudes should be studied with respect to the needs they fulfil or the functions they serve. In other words, an attitude can potentially serve various psychological needs. Drawing on the functional theory of attitudes (Katz 1960), social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1979) and marketing literature (e.g. Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Lam et al. 2012), we propose that both symbolic (brand-personality congruence and brand prestige) and instrumental variables (perceived quality) drive CBI which in turn influences consumers' physical and social brand promotion. We further postulate that perceived quality mediates the link between brand-personality congruence/ brand prestige and CBI, and that brand engagement in self-concept (BESC) moderates the relationship between CBI and its drivers.

Following a pretest, we sampled consumers from a large metropolitan area in the North East of UK, using a mall intercept technique. A total of 293 usable questionnaires (N_{TV} = 135; $M_{obile\ Phone}$=158)345 were collected from the visitors of a mainstream, multi-service Mall location. The participants completed the survey with respect to their favourite brand in two product categories (Mobile phones and TVs). The data was analyzed using Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach for structural equation modelling with SmartPLS. Results indicated that the constructs demonstrate acceptable level of reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity.

The findings indicated that: (1) both brand personality congruence and perceived quality have the same influence on CBI, however, brand prestige does not directly affect CBI; (2) brand-personality congruence does not influence perceived quality, whereas a positive significant relationship between brand prestige and perceived quality exists; (3) CBI influences both social brand promotion and psychical brand promotion; (4) the effect of brand prestige on CBI is fully mediated by perceived quality; and (5) the impact of perceived quality on CBI is moderated by BESC.

This study advances academic knowledge in several ways. First, this research is among the first to empirically validate the positive direct and indirect effects of perceived quality on CBI. Specifically, it expands the traditional view that only variables that satisfy consumers' self-definitional needs are the main drivers of CBI and shows the important role that perceived quality play in driving CBI. Second, we find that in addition to symbols and instrumental variables controlled by the company/brand, consumer characteristics play a key role in driving consumer-brand relationships. Finally, this research adds to extant literature that focuses the attention to CBI as a promising construct that positively influences consumers' behavior. The extant literature focuses on the direct effects of CBI on positive word of mouth and customer advocacy, but largely ignores its impact on physical brand promotion.

Our findings provide important insights for marketing managers. First, our results suggest that fulfilling one' self-consistency needs are far more important than satisfying their self-enhancement motives in developing long term relationships with consumers. Thus, the results suggest that marketing strategies that emphasize the real self are more likely to be effective in developing CBI. Second, we illustrate the results of making the brand more appealing and attractive for customers to satisfy their self-definitional motives together with their utilitarian values. A third managerial implication refers to the importance of classifying consumers in terms of their general tendency to incorporate brands as part of how they view themselves. Those consumers are more likely to form and appreciate meaningful relationships with brands and thus expend their own social, financial and time resources to maintain and nurture this brand relationship.

SELF-CONTINUITY AND CONSUMER IN-ROLE AND EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIOR: THE ROLE OF CONSUMER-BRAND IDENTIFICATION

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Keywords: *Value congruence, customer-to-customer similarity, brand attractiveness, brand loyalty, resilience to negative information*

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The past decade bears witness to a growing interest in consumer-brand identification (CBI), motivated by the positive outcomes that can emerge from such psychological connections (Stokburger-Sauer et al. 2012; Tuskej et al. 2011). Although previous studies on CBI have provided important insights, three limitations are apparent. First, little research has examined the direct impact of CBI on consumers' extra-role behaviour (i.e. resilience to negative information). Second, regardless of the importance of CBI as a powerful predictor of consumer behavior (Lam et al. 2012), much less is understood about the drivers of CBI (Stokburger-Sauer et al. 2012). Finally, the intervention of mediating variables between CBI and its drivers have not been exclusively explored.

This paper proposes that entering volitionally into enduring relationships with brands may be attributed to self-verification theory. The basic premise underlying this

theory is that people are motivated to verify, confirm and maintain their positive as well as negative self-concepts (Swan 1983). Self-verification or self-continuity leads to positive self-evaluations and positive evaluations toward the others and thus facilitating attachment to the other (Burke and Stets 1999). Marketing scholars postulate that self-continuity need is increasingly met through customers' perceptions of congruence or similarity between their own self-concept and that of brand associations (Escalas and Bettman 2003; Lam et al. 2012). While most of the previous research on self–brand congruity focuses on brand personality (Lam et al. 2012), other research has suggested that values and other brand customers/users can also play an important role in enhancing consumer-brand relationships (Zhang and Bloemer 2008; Karaosmanoglu et al. 2011). Thus, we argue that both value congruence and customer-to-customer similarity, as enablers of self-verification, help forge consumers' identification to the brand, which in turn enhances consumer in-role behaviour (i.e. brand loyalty) and extra-role behaviour (i.e. resilience to negative information). Moreover, we extend previous research by examining brand attractiveness as a mediator of the effect of both value congruence and customer-to-customer similarity on CBI.

We sampled consumers from a large metropolitan area in the Midlands of UK, using a mall intercept technique. Participants were asked to complete the survey with respect to their favourite brand in two product categories: Mobile phones and TVs, resulting in 293 complete responses (NTV = 135; Mobile Phone=158). The data was analysed using Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach for structural equation modelling with SmartPLS. The composite reliability values ranged from .84 to .90, indicating high levels of internal consistency. The resulting levels of the factor loadings were significant and AVEs greater than .60, providing empirical support for convergent validity. Discriminant validity was supported, as the lowest AVE value was .60 which is greater than the largest squared correlation of .435. Our results showed that value congruence has the greatest influence on CBI, followed by customer-to-customer similarity that has similar magnitude to that of brand attractiveness. Unlike customer-to customer similarity, value congruence had no significant relationship with brand attractiveness. Further, the results showed that brand attractiveness only partially mediated the relationship between customer-to-customer similarity and CBI. Lastly, compared to consumers' in-role behaviour (i.e. brand loyalty), CBI had a stronger effect on consumers' extra-role behaviour (i.e. resilience to negative information).

At the theoretical level, this study advances our understanding of consumer-brand relationships in three aspects. First, we build on previous CBI literature by introducing value congruence and customer-to-customer similarity as important drivers of CBI. Most importantly, the findings support self-verification theory arguments (Swann 1983), where consumers are willing to form strong relationships with a brand that verifies who they are. Another contribution of this research is that, with the application of similarity–attraction paradigm (Bryne 1971) to branding context, it is possible to explain why consumers are attracted to some brands and not others. Further, to our knowledge, our study is the first to investigate the mediating role of brand attractiveness in the relationship between both value congruence and customer-to-customer similarity and CBI. Third, our findings reveal that CBI triggers not only classic loyalty behaviour, but also influences consumers' extra-role behaviour. Hence, an important implication of our findings is that CBI construct deserves more attention in marketing research.

This research has some important implications for managers regarding consumer-brand relationships. First, the results provide building blocks upon which managers may engender CBI and increase the likelihood of experiencing in-role and extra-role behaviour from their customers. As value congruence turns out to be the strongest direct influence of CBI, companies must set its sights on creating the greatest possible congruence between the values of its target market and its brand. According to our study, the results invite managers to account for the impact of other customers when developing their targeting and positioning strategies as users of the brand can act as informational cues about the brand's identity. The empirical results propose that a company can proactively enhance CBI to protect itself from the impact of negative information before it occurs. Moreover, our research findings demonstrate that strengthening consumers' identification is likely to favourably influence their loyalty to the brand.

The Missing Link between Self-Definitional Principles and Resilience to Negative Information: The Role of Consumer Brand Identification

Abstract

Of particular importance to academics and practitioners in the marketing discipline is the ability to identify means of building deep, committed and enduring relationships with customers and convert them into champions and supporters of these brands. This study proposes and tests determinants of consumer-brand identification which provide consumers with means to partially satisfy their key self-definitional needs. In addition, the influence of consumer-brand identification on consumers' resilience to negative information is also examined. The conceptual model is tested with a sample of 293 customers of two private and public products. The results confirm the influence of value congruence on consumer-brand identification. However, the findings reveal no significant relationship between brand prestigious, brand distinctiveness and consumer-brand identification. Finally, the results show that consumer-brand identification has a positive influence on consumers' resilience to negative information. The study points to the importance of value congruence and identification in protecting the brands from the detrimental impact of negative information.

Keywords: *Consumer-brand identification, social identity theory, value congruence, resilience to negative information, brand prestige, brand distinctiveness*

1. Introduction

The multifaceted relationships between consumers and brands have received significant interest by academic researchers and practitioners in marketing for decades (Levy, 1959; Fournier, 1998; Lam, Ahearne, Hu, & Schillewaert, 2010). Although the essential role of customer satisfaction as an instrumental driver for consumer-brand relationships remains undisputed (Homburg, Wieseke, & Hoyer, 2009), companies continue to investigate means of building deep and enduring relationships with customers that lead to beneficial outcomes (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). In this sense, developing a strong bond with a brand requires a more comprehensive approach than a simple focus on customer satisfaction. Drawing on social identity theory (henceforth referred to as SIT) and organizational identification (henceforth referred to as OI) research, it has been recently argued that a key to the formation of strong relationships between consumers and brands is based on the concept of identification where consumers associate and identify themselves with brands to satisfy one or more of their self-definitional needs (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Identification is critical because it affects the consumers' behaviour which in turn induces in-role and extra-role behaviour (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, & Gruen, 2005).

Despite the importance of the identification construct, it has received limited attention in the marketing literature (Tildesley & Coote, 2009). Even the current brand identification literature underlines a paucity of empirical research (Homburg et al., 2009). Whilst previous studies have outlined some antecedents of consumer-brand identification (henceforth referred to as CBI), little effort has been directed toward identifying the factors that satisfy the consumers' self-definitional needs. Moreover, relatively little is known about the influence of brand identification on consumers' reaction to negative information about the brand. Consequently, the purpose of this study is to develop and test a conceptual framework of CBI, examining the role of value congruence, brand distinctiveness and brand prestigious on the consumer's identification with the brand and in turn its influence on consumers' resilience to negative information. Thus, on the theoretical side, this paper synthesizes a number of relatively unexplored constructs in the branding context to provide a framework of the determinants and outcomes of CBI. On the practical side, this study uses social psychology and marketing theories to provide companies with compelling answers about the factors that engender consumer-brand identification and protect brands from the detrimental impact of negative information. Next, we briefly present an overview of the relevant literature and hypotheses. We then discuss our methods, analysis and findings. The paper concludes with a discussion of the implications of the findings and suggestions for future research.

2. Background and conceptual framework

2.1. Consumer-Brand Identification

Drawing from SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and OI research (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) propose that consumers may identify with companies. Their core argument is that some companies embody attractive and meaningful social identities that partially fulfil one or more of the consumers' key self-definitional needs (Homburg et al., 2009). On the basis of this logic, recently the identification concept was extended to consumer-brands relationships (e.g. Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; Lam et al., 2010). Consistent with OI literature (Asforth & Mael, 1989), CBI is defined as a consumer's perception of oneness with or belongingness to a brand.

Three principles of self-definition- self-continuity, self-distinctiveness- self-enhancement- are likely to account for individuals' identification with a social entity (Dutton, Dukerich, &Harquail, 1994; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In the consumption context, consistent with SIT, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) suggest that the degree to which consumers' perceive the company's identity as similar to their own, distinctive and prestigious are likely to drive identification. This is because (1) identity similarity helps the consumers to maintain a viable, stable and consistent sense of self, (2) identity distinctiveness enables consumers to be different and distinct from others and (3) identity prestige helps consumers to perceive themselves in a positive light (Lam, Ahearne, & Schillewaert, 2012). Based on key self-definitional needs, we propose that the extent to which consumers perceives the brand 1) to have values similar to their own (value congruence), 2) to be distinctive (brand distinctiveness), 3) to be prestigious (brand prestigious) are likely to influence consumer-brand identification (see figure 1). Furthermore, the model posits that the consumers' identification with a given brand leads to extra-role behaviour represented by resilience to negative information.

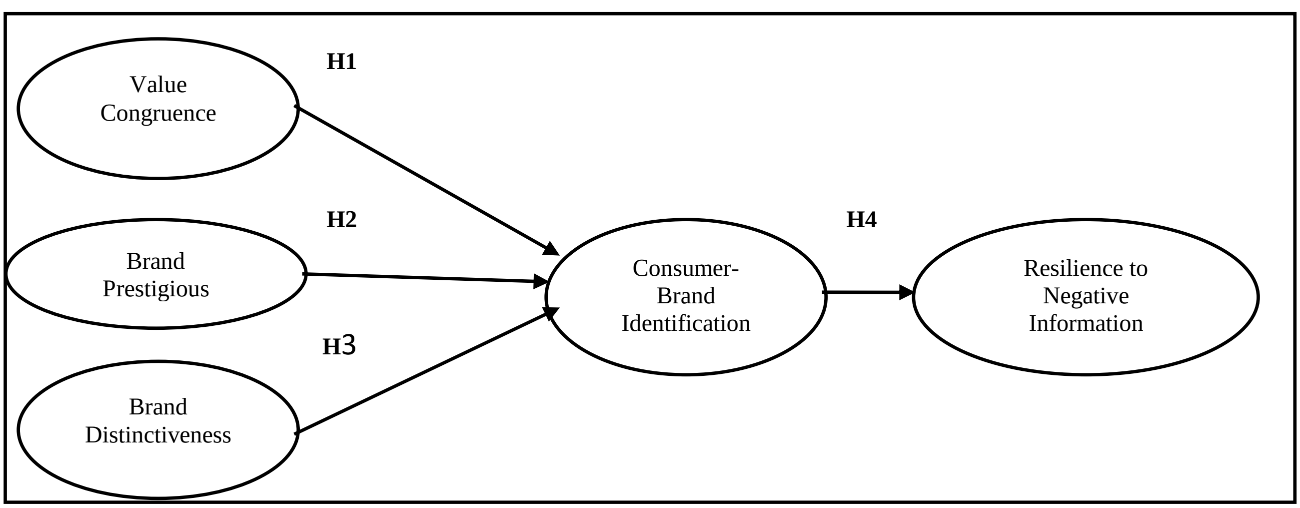

Figure 1. The Conceptual Framework

2.2. Value Congruence

Personal values refer to an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable (Rokeach, 1973). According to Homer and Kahle (1988), values represent a motivational construct and are central elements of the self, meaning that it is more likely to understand the consumer attitudes and behaviour by understanding the consumer personal values (Lages & Fernandes, 2005). Values, from a congruence perspective, are derived from social influence theory which investigates the basis for attitude change (Kelman, 1958). Social influence theory argues that one way for an individual to accept influence to maintain a satisfying relationship with a group or organization is through value congruence. Value congruence refers to the similarity between the consumers' personal values and their perception of the social group's (in this context, the brand) values (Zhang & Bloemer, 2008). Value congruence is often examined in organizational behaviour studies to understand the employees' attitudes and behaviours (e.g. O'Reilly III & Chatman, 1986; Edwards & Cable, 2009). In support of this view, Edwards and Cable (2009) found that when organizational values match employees' values, those employees are more attracted to and trusting toward those organizations, leaden to organizational identification and job satisfaction.

In addition to the previous findings and reasoning, we propose a positive relationship between value congruence and CBI for the following reasons. First, it is well acknowledged in the marketing literature that consumers buy brands not only for their functional utility, but also for their symbolic meanings such as values (e.g. Levy, 1959; Sirgy, 1982). Levy (1959) argued that a product is appropriate when "it joins with, meshes with" the way the consumer thinks about himself (p.410). In other words, self-consistency accounts for the appropriateness of the product. This means, the more the product is consistent with the consumers' values and self-definition the more it is attractive compared to competitor products. Second, self-congruity theory proposes that favourable attitudes towards the brands are partially a function of the match between the brand attributes and the consumers' self-concept (Sirgy, 1982). In a sense, the greater the value congruity, the more likely consumers are attracted to the brand because it enables them not only to construct a viable, stable, and consistent sense of self but also to express themselves more fully and authentically. For example, a consumer who cares about animal rights will be more attracted to Body Shop (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Accordingly, we propose the following:

H1: *The higher the value congruence, the higher is the consumer-brand identification.*

2.3. Brand Prestige

On a general level, we can postulate that the perceived prestige of a brand is a driver of CBI by providing people with one avenue for enhancing their sense of self. In this context, brand prestige refers to the consumers perceptions that other people, whose opinion they value, believe that the brand is well-regarded (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000).Some basic conceptual arguments support this link. First, one of the main tenets of SIT is the self-esteem hypothesis (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) which states that individuals strive to enhance their self-esteem which is based on the degree that one's social groups are valued and perceived in a positive way by relevant others. In a sense, individuals' need for self enhancement can be partially fulfilled by identifying with organizations that have prestigious identities (Asforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994). In other words, people identify with prestigious companies to maintain a positive social identity and enhance their self-esteem by viewing themselves in the company's reflected glory (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Applying these views to the current context, consumers are more likely to identify with prestigious brands, driven by their self-enhancement needs, to perceive themselves as having the positive qualities of the brands.

Our second line of reasoning focuses on the notion of the extended self in consumer behaviour literature (Belk, 1988; Kleine & Baker, 2004) which posits that people tend to incorporate material possession, products, and brands into their conception of self driven by their self-enhancement needs (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). Moreover, it is well acknowledged that consumers buy products and brands to enhance their self-esteem (Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967). Third, the general link between prestigious social entities and identification has been proposed in different contexts, including museums (Bhattacharya, Rao, & Glynn, 1995), alumni (Mael & Ashforth, 1992), non-profit organizations (Cornwell & Coote, 2003) and companies (Ahearne et al., 2005). On the basis of these reasoning, we propose the following:

H2: *The higher the brand prestigious, the higher is the consumer-brand identification.*

2.4. Brand Distinctiveness

Brand distinctiveness is defined as the perceived uniqueness of a brand's identity in relation to other competing brands (Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar, & Sen, 2012). In the identity literature, it has been acknowledged that people strive to be different and distinct from others in interpersonal contexts (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Specifically, the need for uniqueness theory (Snyder & Fromin, 1977) suggests that all people desire uniqueness to some extent to achieve a positive self-view that result in greater self-esteem. This assumption can be traced to optimal distinctiveness theory

(Brewer, 1991) which proposes that individuals attempts to identify with groups that enable them to fulfil their assimilation and differentiation needs simultaneously. In a similar vein, SIT posits that people seek to maintain and enhance their social identity by associating with groups that are perceived to be positively differentiated or distinctive from relevant out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Drawing on SIT, organizational scholars state that the distinctiveness of an organization’s identity relative to comparable organizations is a determinant of identification (Asforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994). Similarly, in the consumption context, products and brands may serve as recognizable symbols of uniqueness (Belk, 1988; Tian, Bearden, & Hunter, 2001). Thus, it is not surprising that customers’ need for uniqueness can be met, in part, through the selection of brands with distinctive identities, that set them apart from their competitors, for the purpose of developing and enhancing one's personal and social identity (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Tian et al., 2001). Therefore, we suggest that one way to satisfy the self-distinctiveness need is to identify with a brand with an identity that is perceived as more distinctive than that of competing brands, which leads to higher levels of CBI.

H3: *The higher the brand distinctiveness, the higher is the consumer-brand identification.*

2.5. Resilience to Negative Information

SIT proposes that individuals tend to choose activities that are congruent with salient aspects of their identities and support institutions that reflect those identities (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In the corporate context, previous research provides ample support that customers who identify with a company are more likely to support it in a variety of ways (Ahearne et al., 2005; Homburg et al., 2009). In line with this, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) propose that identifiers are more likely to overlook and dismiss any negative information they may receive about the company they identify with.

Moreover, drawing on motivated reasoning theory (Kunda, 1990), when strongly identified consumers are challenged by negative information, they are more likely to protect and preserve their self-defining beliefs by processing negative information in a biased manner (Einwiller, Fedorikhin, Johnson, & Kamins, 2006). In support of this, Wu and Tsai (2008) find that consumer-company identification influences consumers' resilience to negative information, which indicates that consumers will forgive mistakes from or negative information about the company. Applying these findings and reasoning to our conceptual model, we propose that consumers who identify strongly with the brand tend to dismiss negative information they may receive about the brand. Thus we propose the following:

H4: *The higher the consumer-brand identification, the higher is the consumers' resilience to negative information about the brand.*

3. Method

Preliminary versions of the questionnaire were administered to a convenience sample of 30 students and consumers. The pilot suggested only minimal changes to be made to the design of the final questionnaire. Following Wakefield and Barker (1998), data were collected by mall intercept technique. A total of 359 respondents participated in the study. Participation was voluntary and no monetary incentives were given to respondents. Participants who provided incomplete responses or did not follow the instructions were dropped from the data set (final N=293). We asked participants about their relationships with their favourite brand in two product categories: TVs and mobile phones. Note that the two product categories chosen because one is privately consumed (TVs) and the other is consumed in public (mobile phones). Moreover, both product categories are chosen to be familiar for all respondents and widely consumed. The sample was 51 percent male, with 69 percent 35 years of age or younger.

A four-item scale constructed from Brasheur, Boles, Bellenger, & Brooks (2003) and Edwards and Peccei (2007) measured value congruence. We measured brand distinctiveness using a four-item scale from Netemeyer and colleagues (2004) and brand prestigious using four items based on Mael and Ashforth's (1992) perceived organizational prestige and propositions of Bhattacharya and Sen (2003). Consumer-brand identification was measured using a six-item scale originally developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992). In terms of the dependent variable, we measured consumers' resilience to negative information using four items adapted from various instruments (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2007, 2010). All items were on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

4. Results

We analysed data using SmartPLS (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005). All items indicated high levels of internal consistency as composite reliabilities for the constructs ranged from 0.84 -0.91, and Cronbach's alphas from 0.72 to 0.88. The high factor loadings (all > .64), AVE values larger than 0.50 and square root of AVE larger than the correlation between the latent variable and all other latent constructs, confirmed convergent and discriminant validity of the model (Table 1).

	AVE	1	2	3	4	5
1.Brand distinctiveness	0.62	**0.79**				
2. Brand prestigious	0.64	0.66	**0.80**			
3. CBI	0.63	0.34	0.26	**0.80**		
4. Resilience to Negative information	0.64	0.41	0.34	0.60	**0.80**	
5. Value Congruence	0.62	0.41	0.39	0.73	0.56	**0.79**

Table 1. Discriminant validity and square root of AVE on the diagonal

As in any survey, common method bias is always to some extend present (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Common method bias was minimized by keeping the respondents' identities confidential and by mixing the items in the questionnaire. Thereafter, following Podsakoff et al. (2003), we ran a PLS model with a common method factor whose indicators included indicators of all the principal constructs and calculated each indicator's variances as substantively explained by the principal construct. This analysis shows that average variance substantively explained variance of the indicators (.67), while the average method based variance is .08. It was also seen that most method factor coefficients are not significant. Given the magnitude and the insignificance of method variance, we argue that common method bias is unlikely to be of serious concern for this study.

In order to estimate paths between the latent variables a path-weighting scheme was utilized. This was the only weighting scheme that explicitly considered the conceptual model directions of the causal relationships between exogenous and endogenous variables (Chin, 1998). Following common conventions, the abort criterion for the iterative estimation process was a change of the estimated values of just 10-5 % between two iterations. In order to determine the significance of each estimated path, a standard bootstrapping procedure was applied with 1000 re-samples consisting of the same number of cases as in the original sample (Yung & Bentler, 1996). Table 2 displays the results.

	β
H1: Value Congruence --> CBI	0.73*
H2 Brand Prestigious --> CBI	0.09†
H3: Brand Distinctiveness --> CBI	0.1†
H4: CBI --> Resilience to negative information	0.6*

* $p \leq 0.001$, ** $p \leq 0.05$; (one-sided test); † - not significant

Table 2. Structural model results

With respect to the relationships between the antecedents and CBI, the findings support the significant positive relationship between value congruence and CBI (H1). CBI and its relationship with brand prestigious (H2) and brand distinctiveness (H3) did not reveal statistically significant results. Furthermore, the results confirm the significant positive relationship between CBI and resilience to negative information (H4).

5. Discussion and conclusions

A key goal of consumer-brand relationship theory is to determine and understand what and how antecedent variables influence consumers to build deep and enduring relationships with certain brands, leading to both in-role and extra-role behaviour (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). This study adds to the growing research on consumer-brand relationships by proposing and testing antecedents of CBI that fulfil the key self-definitional needs and an assessment of CBI influence on resilience to negative information. Specifically, less attention is directed towards bringing together antecedents of CBI that satisfy the three main self definitional needs and to relate CBI with extra-role behaviour represented by resilience to negative information

(Stokburger-Sauer, et al.,2012; Tuškej et al., 2011). Furthermore, this study introduces value congruence as a relatively new unexplored antecedent of CBI (for exception, see Tuškej et al., 2011).

According to our results, the most important antecedent influencing CBI is value congruence. In other words, consumers are more likely to identify with the brand if they perceive the brand values similar to their own. This result indicates that marketing academics and practitioners should pay more attention to value congruence as a driver of consumer behaviour. Interestingly, no support was obtained for the predictive role of brand prestigious and brand distinctiveness. This may be attributed to two reasons: First, CBI may be less sensitive to brand prestige and brand distinctiveness in private consumed products (TVs) and even traditional mobile phones than in conspicuous luxury products. Second, favourite brands chosen by respondents tend to be functional brands (e.g. Nokia, Samsung) than symbolic brands. Thus, further research is needed to investigate the role of brand prestige and brand distinctiveness in conspicuous product categories. Moreover, investigating antecedents of CBI using specific bands is a worthwhile future research. The results also demonstrate that the stronger a consumer identifies with a brand, the stronger is their resilience to negative information. This finding shows the importance of the identification in influencing consumer behaviour.

Consumer-Brand Identification: Conceptualization, Antecedents and Consequences

Abstract:

Despite the surge in interest in research on organizational identification, little attention has been paid to investigating the notion of identification in the branding context. Moreover, consumer-brand identification has been conceptualized and opertionalized equally as organizational identification while ignoring both the shortcomings of organizational identification measures and the differences between the two contexts. Drawing on social identity theory and marketing literature, the authors develop a theory-derived definition of consumer-brand identification distinct from organizational identification. Additionally, the authors propose a conceptual model of the different antecedents and consequences of consumer-brand identification, including product involvement as a key moderating variable. The findings of this study would benefit the managers to gain a better understanding of the factors that are valuable for consumers, thereby increasing both in-role and extra-role behaviour.

Keywords: *Social identity theory, Consumer-brand identification, Consumer behaviour, Branding, Self-image congruence, Loyalty*.

Introduction

Drawing from social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and organizational identification research (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) in their seminal paper argued that a key to the formation of strong relationships between consumers and companies is based on the concept of identification where consumers associate and identify themselves with companies to satisfy one or more of their self-definitional needs. However, only a handful of studies have incorporated consumer brand identification (henceforth referred to as CBI) in their conceptual models and tested it empirically (Tildesley & Coote, 2009 e.g. Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008; 2010).Nonetheless, these studies have conceptualized CBI equally as organizational identification (henceforth referred to as OI) i.e. they replaced the word organization by brand. Perhaps, one major drawback is that most studies in the marketing field have a cognitive emphasis ignoring the evaluative and emotional facets of identification.

Moreover, CBI has been measured using scales adapted from OI research (e.g. Mael &Ashforth, 1992). However, OI scales suffer from serious shortcomings. First, they do not represent some of the unique aspects that bind consumers to brands (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2008). Second, OI scales lack validity and fail to reflect the multidimensional nature of identification as indicated by Tajfel's (1981) original definition of social identity (Edwards & Peccei, 2007). As indicated by Rikketa (2005) in his recent meta-analysis of OI, lacking a clear, precise and agreed conceptualization and operationalization of identification can hinder empirical progress in the field. Therefore, there is a need for rigorous operationalization of CBI, with precise and clear theoretical conceptualization, related and linked to how the construct is defined. In light of these shortcomings, the aim of this research is twofold: First, we build on social identity theory (henceforth referred to as SIT) to develop a clear theory-derived definition of CBI. Second, we propose a conceptual model that explores the antecedents and consequences of CBI.

Social Identity Theory and its applicability in a branding context

The main assumption of SIT (Tajfel, 1978) is that the self-concept is comprised of a personal identity encompassing specific personal attributes and a social identity defined as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1981, p.255). This social categorization allows individuals not only to cognitively segment, classify and order the social environment but also provide them a means to define themselves and others (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The other part of the theory is the tenet that individuals strive to achieve a positive self-esteem (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) either by trying to enhance their personal identity and/or their social identity (Edwards, 2005). In line with SIT, OI research proposed that formal membership is not a perquisite for identification (Scott & Lane, 2000) as in the case of consumers and their companies (Bhattarchya & Sen, 2003). Thus, Bhattarchya and Sen (2003) proposed that consumers may identify with companies that embody attractive social identities to satisfy one or more of their key self-definitional needs. Following the same logic, the concept of identification can be extended to consumer-brands relationships given the following reasons. First, brands can represent positive, attractive and meaningful social categories to which consumers can identify with or classify themselves as belonging to (Belk, 1988; Fournier, 1998). Second, brands may be more appropriate than companies for consumers to identify with given that brands are more familiar to consumers than companies. In addition, a company may have multiple brands with different personalities so the focus of identification in case of companies may not be obvious (Tidesley & Coote, 2009).

Reconceptualization of Consumer-Brand Identification

Following from an earlier discussion; within the social identity definition, three components of identification can be distinguished: (1) a cognitive component which is the sense of awareness and acceptance of being a member of a social group, (2) an evaluative aspect which is the sense that this awareness of membership is related to some value connotations assigned to the group, and (3) an emotional dimension which describes the emotional investment in this awareness and evaluations (Tajfel,1982). In addition, Tajfel elaborated that in order to achieve the stage of identification with a social group, the cognitive and evaluative components are necessary and the emotional component is frequently associated with them. Therefore, based on the preceding literature and upon reflection of SIT, CBI is defined in this research *as the extent to which the brand is incorporated into one's self-concept through the development of cognitive connection with the brand, valuing this connection with the brand, and the emotional attachment to the brand.*

Specifically, this definition reflects the three aspects of identification indicated in SIT which, when taken together, define the extent to which the consumer incorporates the brand into his or her self-concept. It overcomes the shortcoming of the previous conceptualizations that focused only on either the cognitive aspect or the emotional component of identification. On the basis of SIT and the proposed CBI definition, it is argued that CBI can be represented in terms of three dimensions, namely, cognitive CBI, evaluative CBI and affective CBI. In terms of dimensionality, CBI is a second order construct with three first order dimensions. All these dimensions are assumed to be conceptually distinct but highly interrelated; it is probable that an individual who perceives that his organization is positively evaluated from others also shows emotional attachment to social category (Van Dick, 2001).

Proposed Components of Consumer-Brand Identification

Cognitive CBI:

According to SIT, the cognitive component of identification refers to the individual’s self-categorization to a social category (Van Dick, 2001) which provides a partial definition of who one is in terms of the defining characteristics of the group (Hogg et al., 1995). There appears to be a consensus that as a result of this self-categorization, a cognitive connection is developed between the individual and the social category to which one belongs (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). It has also been argued that when brand associations are used to construct the self-concept or communicate it to others or to themselves; a cognitive connection is formed with brand (Escalas & Bettman, 2003). For instance, professionals buy Mercedes and BMW cars while outdoorsy people purchase Subarus and Utes cars. Hence, a measure of CBI should consider the consumers’ cognitive connection to the brand to reflect their social identity and social categorization. Cognitive CBI in this research refers *to the extent to which consumers’ categorize themselves in terms of a particular brand and label themselves as an exemplar of that category.*

Evaluative CBI:

Social identities have self-evaluative consequences i.e. social categories to which one belongs carry different degrees of positive and negative value for the self (Turner et al., 1994). Social identities may be positive or negative based on how one evaluates one's social group and how one perceive others' evaluate those groups (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). Dutton et al. (1994) proposed that organizations can have positive and negative effects on a member's sense of self. Research also suggests that people disassociate themselves from brands with negative meanings as identifying with those brands will result in negative evaluations for one's self (Banister & Hogg, 2004). Therefore, a CBI measure should take into account the impact of consumer's connection to a brand on self-evaluation. Evaluative CBI in this research refers to *the degree to which consumers' value their connection with the brand and the perceived value placed on this connection by others.*

Affective CBI:

The emotional component of identification, which is frequently associated with the other two aspects, refers to the emotional attachment to the group and to those evaluations associated with the group (Tajfel, 1982). In line with this proposition, Park and colleagues (2010) proposed that emotions are evoked when self-brand connection is strong including sadness from self–brand separation and happiness from self-brand proximity. Additionally, it has been argued that emotional attachment tends to be stronger in more positively evaluated groups as these groups contribute more to positive social identity (Ellemers et al., 1999). Fournier (1998) proposed that emotional relationships emerge only when brands become integrated into consumers' lives and identity projects. Therefore, a measure of CBI should consider the emotional attachment the consumer develops with the brand. Affective CBI in this research refers *to the individual's feelings toward the brand and toward others' evaluations of the brand.*

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework proposes that brand prestige and brand distinctiveness will motivate the extent to which consumers identify with the brand to satisfy their self enhancement and self distinctiveness needs. Additionally, self-image congruence and functional congruence will enhance consumers' identification with the brand. Further, it posits that consumers are more likely to identify with the brand under high product involvement conditions and CBI will result in both in-role and extra-role behaviours.

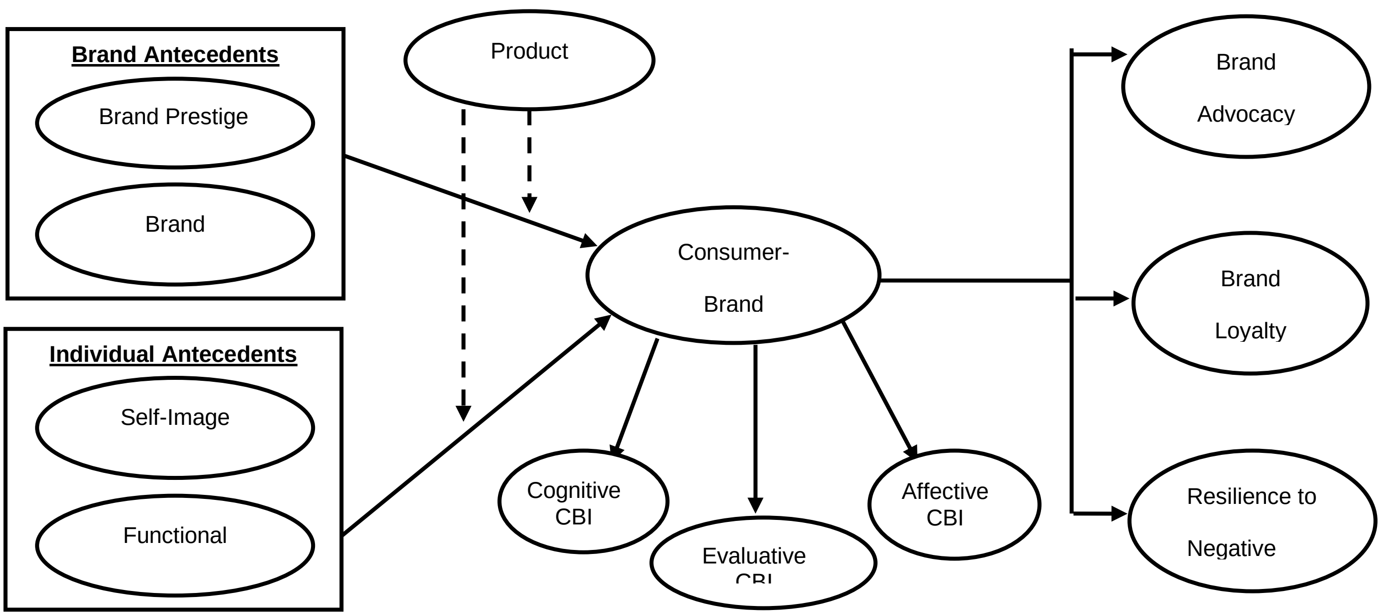

Figure.1. The Conceptual Framework

Antecedents to Consumer-Brand Identification

Brand Antecedents:

SIT (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) proposes that individuals strive to enhance their self-esteem which is based on the degree that one's social groups are valued and compared favourably relative to relevant out-groups. The notion that consumers buy products to enhance their self-esteem is well acknowledged in consumer behaviour literature (e.g. Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967). In line with this, Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) propose that members' fulfil their self-enhancement needs if they perceive that important others believe that their organization is well regarded (i.e. respected, prestigious, and well-known). In other words, people identify with prestigious companies to maintain a positive social identity and enhance their self-esteem by viewing themselves in the company's reflected glory (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Therefore, the greater the brand is perceived as prestigious by consumers, the more likely consumers identify with the brand to enhance their self-esteem. Hence:

H1: *The greater prestigious the consumers perceive a brand, the higher the identification with that brand.*

Distinctiveness relates to how the organization is different from other organizations thus providing a more salient definition to its members (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). SIT posits that people seek to maintain and enhance their social identity by associating with groups that are perceived to be positively differentiated or distinctive from relevant out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Borrowing from SIT, Dutton et al., (1994) asserted that organizational members who believe that their organization is distinctive relative to other organizations are more likely to identify with their organization. Hence, consumers should perceive a stronger identification with distinctive brands. Therefore:

H2: *The greater distinctive the consumers perceive a brand, the higher the identification with that brand.*

Individual Antecedents:

Self-image congruence refers to the match between the consumer's self-concept and the brand's personality (Kressman et al., 2006). Self-congruity is guided by self-consistency motives, whereby the greater the similarity between the brand user-image or brand personality and the consumer's self-concept the higher the self congruity. In OI research, Dutton and colleagues (1994) have indicated that people generally want to maintain self-consistency over time and across situations. Self-consistency allows people not only to process and understand the information easily but also provides easy opportunities to express themselves. They proposed that the more similarity between the individuals' self-concept and the organizational identity, the more they identify with the organization. Analogously, it is proposed here that the greater the self-congruity, the more likely consumers identify the brand to maintain their self-consistency. Based on the preceding, we propose the following hypothesis:

H3: *The greater the self-congruity with a brand, the higher the identification with that brand.*

Functional congruity refers to the extent to which functional attributes of the brand matches the consumer's expectations regarding how the product should perform to accomplish the central goal of the product (Kressman et al., 2006). Functional congruity is guided by utilitarian motive. Mael and Ashforth (1992) have found that satisfaction with the alma mater's contribution to the attainment of students' goals is associated with identification. Bhattacharya et al., (1995) argued that the more the organization fulfills the members' personal goals, the greater is the identification. Thus, it is proposed here that the greater the functional congruity with a brand, the more likely to identify with a brands. Therefore:

H4: *The greater the functional congruity with a brand, the higher the identification with that brand.*

The extent to which both brand antecedents and individual antecedents contribute to brand identification is likely to be accentuated when consumers are highly involved with the product category. For example a consumer who is highly involved with cars is more likely to identify with a brand like BMW to satisfy one or more of his self-definitional needs than a consumer who is not highly involved with cars in general. As such:

H5: *Product involvement moderates the effect of (a) brand prestige, (b) brand distinctiveness, (c) self-image congruence and (d) functional congruence on consumer-brand identification.*

Consequences to Consumer-Brand Identification

SIT proposes that individuals tend to choose activities that are congruent with important aspects of their identities and support institutions that reflect those identities (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Additionally, Park et al., (2010) extended self-expansion theory and proposed that the more the brand is incorporated in the self, the more likely consumers expend their own social, financial and time resources in the brand to maintain this brand relationship. In what follows, some consequences that might apply to the consumption context are examined.

Brand Loyalty: Researchers (e.g. Bhattacharya et al., 1995) have argued that identification is associated with members' commitment in terms of reduced turnover in organizations and extra role behaviour in terms of financial support in the context of non-profit institutions. Analogously, consumers who identify with brands are more likely to support their brand by repurchasing the brand, long-term preference for the brand and willing to pay a price premium, as they have a vested interest in the success of their brands for the benefits that accrue to them. Therefore,

H6: *The greater the consumer-brand identification, the higher the brand loyalty.*

Brand Advocacy: Brand advocacy refers here to positive word of mouth and recommendation behaviour (customer recruitment). Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) proposed that identifiers have a clear stake in the success of the company, driven by their self-enhancement, self-distinctiveness and self-consistency needs, and thus are more likely to promote the company socially by initiating positive word of mouth about the company and its products. In line with this, Mael and Ashforth (1992) found that OI is significantly related to the member's willingness to advise others to join the university. Hence, it is proposed that CBI should be positively related to positive word of mouth and recommendation behaviour. Therefore:

H7: *The greater the consumer-brand identification, the higher the brand advocacy.*

Resilience to negative information: People generally seek to maintain self-consistency over time (Dutton et al., 1994). Therefore, consumers who seek continuity in identifying with a particular company are more likely to dismiss any negative information they may receive about the company (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). Moreover, they argue that consumers are willing to forgive the company they identify with just as they will forgive themselves for minor mistakes. Hence, it is proposed that consumers demonstrating high level of identification with a particular brand will be more resilient to negative information about that brand. Therefore:

H8: *The greater the consumer-brand identification, the higher the resilience to negative information*

Conclusions

Theoretical Contributions:

This study will contribute towards a clear theory-derived definition of CBI building on SIT, an important step towards enriching the identification theory in the marketing area and understanding the motives behind building strong relationships with brands.

Managerial Contributions:

The findings of this study will provide marketers a better understanding of the strong relationship consumers builds with brands for the purpose of fulfilling their self-definitional needs. Moreover, this study would benefit the managers to gain a better understanding of the characteristics that are valuable for consumers and drive beneficial outcomes.

Directions for Future Research:

Future research could develop and validate a scale which will capture the proposed conceptualization of CBI. Furthermore the proposed hypotheses advanced in the present study could be tested empirically.